DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 191 332 FL 011 792

AUTHOR	Chambers, Fred, Ed.: McDonough, Jo, Ed.
TITLE	Aspects of English for Specific Purposes. Occasional Papers, No. 22.
INSTITUTION	Essex Univ., Colchester (England). Dept. of Language and Linguistics.
PUB DATE	Jan 80
NOTE	219p.: Papers written by students in the M.A. in Applied Linguistics program, University of Essex, Colchester, England. Not available in paper copy because of small print size of original document.
AVAILABLE FROM	University of Essex, Department of Language and Linguistics, Wivenhoe Park, Colchester CO4 3SQ, England (2 pounds)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Education: Course Organization: Curriculum Development: *English for Special Purposes: Foreign Students: Formative Evaluation: Instructional Materials: Interpreters: Literacy Education: Needs Assessment: Reading Instruction: Science Education: Simulation: Technical Education: Vocational Education

ABSTRACT

The following papers on English for special purposes are collected here: (1) "An Investigation of Some of the English Language Problems of Overseas Students at the National College of Agricultural Engineering, Silsoe" by M. Keech: (2) "The Organization of Pre-sessional Courses, with Special Reference to Seminar Skills" by S.R. Slater: (3) "Notes towards Meeting the Pre-Session Needs of Future Students of Conference Interpretation Using English as a Source Language" by T.J. Martin: (4) "On Designing a Syllabus for an EST Course" by J. de la Cruz Rojas: (5) "A Functional Approach to the Analysis of English Language Needs in an Occupational Setting: English for Swedish Pharmacists" by P. Hedge: (6) "Simulation for Air-Ticketing Trainees with Special Attention to the Development of a Link between the Formal Classroom Situation and the Simulation" by F. Chambers: and (7) "An Evaluation of Materials Used in Adult Literacy Schemes, with Particular Reference to the Development of Reading Skills" by L. Gorman. (JB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED191332

University of Essex

Department of Language and Linguistics

OCCASIONAL PAPERS

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Univ of Essex
Dept of Lang. + Ling

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)"

FL 011792

Colchester, January 1980

EDITORS: Fred Chambers
Jo McDonough

22

ASPECTS OF
ENGLISH FOR
SPECIFIC PURPOSES

OCCASIONAL PAPER No. 22

ASPECTS OF ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

Contents

		page
Introduction		1
M. Keech	An Investigation of some of the English Language Problems of Overseas Students at the National College of Agricultural Engineering, Silsoe	3
S.R.Slater	The Organisation of Pre-Sessional Courses, with Special Reference to Seminar Skills	33
T.J.Martin	Notes towards meeting the Pre-Session Needs of Future Students of Conference Interpretation using English as a Source Language	59
J. de la Cruz Rojas	On Designing a Syllabus for an EST Course	92
P. Hedge	A Functional Approach to the Analysis of English Language Needs in an Occupational Setting: English for Swedish Pharmacists	127
F. Chambers	Simulation for Air-Ticketing Trainees with Special Attention to the Development of a Link Between the Formal Classroom Situation and the Simulation	161
L. Gorman	An Evaluation of Materials used in Adult Literacy Schemes, with Particular Reference to the Development of Reading Skills	184
References		211

I N T R O D U C T I O N

The seven articles in this collection are revised and shortened versions of papers written between 1976 and 1979 by experienced and practising teachers following the MA in Applied Linguistics at Essex.

Each of the original papers consisted in varying degrees of a Unit of teaching materials and a substantial theoretical justification. In the revised versions it has been necessary, for reasons of space, to limit the amount of teaching material printed, and to exclude obvious areas of overlap between papers : however, they are in all essentials very close to the originals.

One of the major contributions of ESP to language teaching has been to give impetus to the construction of courses with closely specified aims. Each of these articles shows how a specific learning goal is reached via various related stages of decision, but also how specificity and limitation of purpose, because of a firm theoretical base, can have considerable powers of generalisability. The articles are loosely grouped. Margaret Keech reports on the results of a practical needs analysis carried out in an academic environment, and at the same time holds up for scrutiny a number of background quest[illegible]s in this area : she also indicates ways in which such findings have implications for course design. Steve Slater, also in an academic setting, is concerned with pre-session courses in general, and specifically with the setting-up of the 'Seminar Skills' component of

such a course, questioning a number of assumptions. Tim Martin discusses a rather different type of pre-session course by looking at the needs of future interpreters, concentrating here on listening skills. Juan Rojas' paper is 'mainline' ESP, in that it deals with the overseas student in his own country whose primary, if not sole, use for English is to read in his own subject. The next two articles move from the academic into the occupational context : Patricia Hedge suggests a syllabus for pharmacists based on a detailed functional analysis, and Fred Chambers discusses the question of simulation in ESP, and sets out a transitional programme component between a full simulation and a more traditional syllabus. Finally, Linda Gorman discusses the issue of materials evaluation in the field of Adult Literacy, an area which to date has not been dealt with to any extent within the established categories of ESP, but which clearly is of central importance.

Fred Chambers

Jo McDonough

January 1980

AN INVESTIGATION OF SOME OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROBLEMS OF OVERSEAS STUDENTS AT THE NATIONAL COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURAL ENGINEERING SILSOE

------oOo------

Margaret Keech

I should like to acknowledge the co-operation of the staff and students of the National College of Agricultural Engineering, in making the work reported in this article possible.

INTRODUCTION

The English language problems experienced by the overseas students at the National College of Agricultural Engineering are not unique, and are found in universities and other institutions of higher education throughout Britain, as they have been for a numher of years.

Studies by Holes (1972) at Birmingham University, and Jordan (1977) at Manchester University, and confirmed by this study, show that the main reasons for this are:-

1. The increasing numbers of students from non-Commonwealth countries, where English is neither a second langauge, nor the medium of instruction in schools and universities. Thus, according to Holes (ibid), they lack "the advantage of communicative competence in English which their Commonwealth counterparts enjoy".
2. Another factor which will increasingly have its effect, is that of language planning on a national scale in many countries. This has occurred both in Commonwealth countries and those which have in the past used English as the medium of scientific and technical instruction, where an indigenous language is now used for this purpose. Many overseas students in higher education in Britain at present, have received part of their education in their own countries in these transitional

periods. The effects are seen in a deterioration in the standards of English language of overseas students from such countries.

Students interviewed at the College from Srilanka, Kenya Cyprus and Malaysia spoke of such changes, and the Head of Postgraduate Studies commented that he had noticed a deterioration in the standard of English of Sudanese students in recent years, where it is no longer used as the medium of instruction.

At the British Conference on overseas students, held in 1975, attended by representatives from British universities and institutions of higher education, there was a division of views expressed on the question of remedial English courses for overseas students. While some conference members felt that it was the responsibility of the receiving institution to organise such courses, this was strongly opposed by others, for apart from the difficulties of financing and staffing time, they felt that the English language problems should have been "sorted out" before the students commenced their courses.

The lecturing staff of the College are aware of the English language problems of overseas students, particularly in the postgraduate courses, where overseas students are in the majority, and the concern they express reflects the unsatisfactory situation which exists on a national scale. Holes (op.cit) quoting Alan Davies confirms this:-

> "Many of the more serious language problems are faced by the overseas postgraduate students who are in Britain for one year or less. The undergraduate student, however lacking in proficiency, once admitted, has the probability of three or four years in which to equip himself with adequate English."

Most of the overseas undergraduate students come from Commonwealth countries, where English is the second language and frequently the medium of instruction. Some of them have received part of their pre-University education in Britain.

The concern of the staff of the College, expressed in correspondence, has concentrated on two main areas:-

1. The methods of testing used to assess the English language proficiency of overseas students, in their own countries.
2. The establishing of a pre-sessional course designed specifically for the English language needs of the overseas students of the College.

IDENTIFYING THE NATURE OF THE STUDENTS' ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROBLEMS AT THE COLLEGE

It is essential before embarking on the planning of an English language course for specific purposes, 'to determine accurately what these specific purposes are,' to be able to 'translate these needs into linguistic and pedagogic terms in order to produce and teach an effective course,' states Mackay (1978)

Method

In order to collect the necessary information, the method of structured interview was chosen, in preference to a questionnaire, to be completed by either the students or myself. Mackay (ibid) believes that 'the structured interview has several advantages over the questionnaire,' which are:-

1. No questions will be left unanswered.
2. Any misunderstanding in the interpretation of questions can be clarified.

3. It provides the opportunity to follow up a line of interest, which may crop up during the course of the interview.

I would add two more advantages of the structured interview to those suggested by Mackay (ibid.) It provided me with the opportunity to assess the student's ability in speaking and understanding spoken English. Holes (op.cit). found it advantageous to follow up the questionnaire completed by the students in his survey, with an interview, for the same reason. In addition, many of the students interviewed seemed to appreciate that someone was taking an interest in them and welcomed the opportunity to discuss some of the language problems they had experienced.

Holes (ibid), quoting a study made by Hebron at Rutherford College, Newcastle-on-Tyne, states: 'The speed of an overseas student's adjustment to the social and educational system of this country depends to some extent on his initial ability to understand and use English effectively.'

In an effort to maintain an informal atmosphere at the interview, I did not adhere rigidly to the order of questions as they were set out.

The students interviewed were a sample selected by the College, although I did request that the sample chosen should be as representative as possible, in respect of the students' country of origin and the courses available at the College. The sample was made up as follows:-

Sample of Students Interviewed

Number of Students	Country of Origin	Course	Year
1	Chile	B.Sc	1st
1	Malaysia	B.Sc	3rd
1	Kenya	B.Sc	3rd
1	Srilanka	B.Sc	3rd

Number of Students	Country of Origin	Course	Year
1	Nepal	Diploma	-
1	Cyprus	Diploma	-
1	Brazil	M.Sc.	Part II
1	Holland	M.Sc.	Part II
1	Brazil	Ph.D.	1st

I would have preferred a larger sample of postgraduate students, but in the limited time available for the study, this was not possible. It is considered that the information recorded is, however, representative of the English language problems which exist at the College.

Results of the Structured Interview

1. Personal Details

The courses being attended and the countries of origin of the students interviewed are shown in the foregoing table. I did not investigate the ages of the students, but the majority were mature students, especially in the postgraduate courses, with some years of work experience after their first degree courses. As Holes (op.cit.) found, it is important to take into consideration such contributory factors as age, the lapse of time since their first degree and the difficulties of adjusting to the techniques of postgraduate study courses, as well as different study methods, for language is by no means the only difficulty experienced by overseas postgraduate students.

2. Previous English Language Courses

The division was quite clear: those students from Commonwealth countries and Europe, who were interviewed, had attended no special English language courses, neither in their own country nor in the United Kingdom, prior to the commencement of their courses

at the College. The students from Kenya, Srilanka and Malaysia had all been taught in English for their secondary education, although they all spoke of the increasing use of indigenous languages as the medium of instruction in their countries. The Cypriot student had learned English, both at school, and as a compulsory subject in his first degree course in Turkey. British forces stationed inCyprus and tourism had provided opportunities for conversation in English. He explained that, before partition, English had been the second language of the island. The Dutch student explained that, in addition to learning English as a secondary school subject, it had been included as part of his agricultural degree course in Holland.

The South American and the Nepalese students had learned very basic English in their secondary school education. The Nepalese student told me that some of the lecture courses at universities in Nepal are given in English. English is not a second language in either Brazil or Chile, although it is spoken in the big tourist centres. Many of the text-books used in Brazilian University courses are written in English. But, on the whole, the South American students' had had very limited contact with the English language.

All of the South American students interviewed and the Nepalese student, had attended English language courses in Britain of about three months' duration before they began their courses at the College. The Brazilian students had also had English courses before coming to Britain.

3. Listening Skills

A. The Lecture Situation

Morrison (1974), who conducted a survey at the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, found in his analysis of the students' responses

to his questionnaire, that the students classified their difficulties as being due to the spoken language, for example, speed of delivery, accent or pronunciation, rather than the subject content of the lecture. These views coincided with those of the students interviewed at the College, although some of them said they experienced difficulties with technical terminology.

(i) Regional Accents: Most of the students interviewed had experienced difficulties in understanding the different regional accents of lecturers at the College at the beginning of their courses, but those in their second or third year of study said that they had become accustomed to them.

(ii) Speed of delivery: Some of the students experienced difficulty with the speed of delivery in lectures. Although they said that they understood most of what was being said, even at speed, the difficulty lay in trying to write down the information quickly in their notes. Hirst et al. (1977), emphasise the difficulty of separating two skills in one activity, for example, the listening and writing skills in the lecture situation.

(iii) Technical Terminology: The non-Commonwealth students experienced difficulties of this nature in the lecture situation. The South American students encountered problems with technical terminology which was not Latin-based, for example, the names of machine parts. A botanical term like "xerophytes", presented difficulty in the spoken form to the Nepalese student, although he may have understood it in the written form.

(iv) Pronunciation: Distinguishing sounds in quick speech, for example, (stem) and (steam), created another difficulty for the Nepalese student.

B. Tutorial Groups

These are used for remedial purposes at the College and are organised by lecturers for students who experience difficulty in their particular section of the course. Generally they consist of small groups of students and for this reason less difficulty is experienced in listening than in a lecture situation with a larger group.

C. Seminars

These are arranged for some of the courses at the College, either with a visiting speaker or for the purpose of describing their research projects by postgraduate students.

Overseas students experience difficulties with the speed of delivery of visiting speakers, the complexity of material or the lack of organisation of material.

D. Social Occasions

The single students who live on the College campus have more opportunities for conversation in English, with other students, although some of them expressed difficulty in understanding both the regional accents of British students, also their use of "slang". Some of the students said that they sometimes found the local regional accent, in shops and on public transport, a problem.

The married students, who do not live on the College campus, hear most spoken English outside the academic situation, in a passive listening role, from television, as Jordan (op.cit) found in his survey. Most of the students interviewed watched television for at least an hour daily, and some of them for longer periods, especially at week-ends.

4. Speaking Skills

A. The Lecture Situation

Five of the students interviewed expressed difficulties in asking questions in lectures. They included the Sri-Lankan student, a fluent speaker of English, having received part of his secondary education in Britain, and the Malaysian student, who said that he still thought in Malay.

The chief difficulty expressed was in formulating the question, especially the order of syntax, where it differs in English from their own language, with the result that a question could be uttered as a statement.

Those students who experienced no difficulty, said that when asking questions, they did not worry whether the order of syntax was correct. Others admitted that their problem in this area could be attributed to a lack of confidence.

B. Tutorial Groups)
C. Seminars) No comments were made on difficulties in speaking skills in these situations.

D. Social Occasions

Without exception, the four married students who live off the College campus, said that they had little opportunity for conversation in English, and spoke English for only half-an-hour daily during the course of their studies. Most of them found British people unapproachable and uncommunicative. The problem expressed by the students, including two of the students from Commonwealth countries, was that their own accents, when speaking English, meant that they were often not understood, and they felt that British people were not patient enough to try to understand them.

The students in Hole's survey (op.cit) also expressed

Their lack of opportunity to get to know and mix with English people. He suggests that the cause may have been what appeared to be a poor command of English. He also cites a survey by Sen, in which the students found British families very reserved and indifferent towards them.

The wives of overseas students who speak little or no English, restrict their friendships, as a result, to people who speak their native language, which can only hinder the integration of an overseas student's family into a British community.

The Dutch student admitted, that as there was another Dutch postgraduate student at the College, he had reached a communicative level in spoken English, beyond which he had not progressed. He found he could not always think of a suitable word to fit the context of a conversation, and that as a result, it was quite a strain speaking to English people, whom he found less tolerant than Americans about the use of correct expressions.

Most of the students regretted the lack of opportunity to practise their spoken English, with the result that their standard of English had not improved as much as they expected it would while living in Britain.

5. Writing Skills

A. The Lecture Situation

Morrison (op.cit), in his analysis of the students' responses to his questionnaire, found that the largest percentage of students expressed their difficulty in note-taking in the lecture situation, as not being able to write fast enough.

If it had been possible to conduct a more detailed survey, it would probably have revealed other difficulties, similar

to those of the students in Morrison's survey (ibid.); that the students realised that they were trying to write too much, they were not recognising what was important and were unable to find suitable abbreviations.

Most of the students interviewed in this study felt that their greatest difficulty was not being able to write their lecture notes quickly enough, in relation to the speed of delivery of the lecture. None of them attempted to write all of their lecture notes in their own language, although one student reported that he wrote the main points emphasised by the lecturer, in his own language, to make sure that he had a correct record of them. It has been suggested in seminar discussions at the University of Essex, that writing lecture notes in one's native language, helps to focus attention on the main points of the lecture and to summarise the content. It is a strategy used by some of the overseas students whose native language is not English. It could be argued, however, that the ability to do this is directly related to the student's level of proficiency in the English language.

The use of the overhead projector is a common practice in lectures at the College, either with already prepared transparencies, or by writing on transparencies during the course of the lecture. "Hand-outs" are also prepared by most of the lecturers, although their purpose and the amount of lecture content they reproduce varies with the individual lecturer.

All of the students interviewed said that they found the use of the overhead projector and the issuing of "hand-outs" helpful, in the lecture situation. It was important that the content of the "hand-out" could be directly related to their own lecture notes, for it to be an effective aid, was the view expressed by one of the students.

B. Report and Essay Writing

Most of the students interviewed stated that because they found the writing of technical reports difficult, it was a very time-consuming exercise for them. The types of difficulties they experienced were:-

(i) The use of the correct grammatical construction.

(ii) The division of their work into paragraphs.

(iii) The use of the correct expressions to describe experiments.

(iv) English technical vocabulary

(v) The necessity to write concisely.

The writing of essays seemed to present less difficulties to the students than the writing of reports. They found that the use of reference material in the preparation of essays, helped their written style.

C. Thesis and Project Writing

At the stage of the academic year when this survey was conducted, none of the postgraduate students had reached the point when they would be writing their theses or dissertations. They had, therefore, not yet encountered the problems to which the lecturers refer.

An undergraduate student explained that he was experiencing difficulty with his special study project, which is produced in the final year of the B.Sc Honours degree course. He had found the writing of technical English an increasingly difficult task, as his course at the College had progressed. He regretted the type of project he had chosen, which involved research by reading, instead of the reproduction of data from experiments. Subsequent discussion suggested that this student's problem was more associated

with reading difficulties and the interpretation of texts.

"A Guide to the Preparation of Special Study Reports andTheses" was compiled and published by the College in 1977. This is a very useful publication, which sets out the procedure to be adopted and makes recommendations on layout and the use of reference material.

6. Reading Skills

The undergraduate students expressed some difficulties in reading, whereas the postgraduate students found that it presented them with little or no difficulty, explaining that they had so much reading to do, they had to do it quickly.

Reading was the skill which gave the least difficulty to the students in the survey conducted by Holes. (op.cit.). The reason he suggests for this, are that their previous English studies had emphasised the written word, also the lack of competitiveness in reading, which can be completed in the student's own time. Holes (ibid.) found that a slow reading speed tended to discourage students from reading suitable reference material, and as a result, they relied solely on their lecture notes for subject matter, which had been gained second-hand.

The postgraduate students admitted that they experienced occasional problems with technical vocabulary, but used a dictionary for this purpose. Four of the five postgraduate students are mature students and have probably developed a greater facility for reading at speed. They are also accustomed to consulting technical texts written in English, in their own countries.

The undergraduate courses at the College do not involve the students in as much reading and reference work as do the postgraduate

courses, which would explain the difficulties being experienced by the B.Sc. students in their third year of study. They felt that they read slowly for the following reasons:-

(i) Difficulties in the understanding and interpretation of written texts.

(ii) English technical vocabulary

(iii) Difficulties with English constructions, which had to be re-read to be understood.

Summary of Skills in order of difficulty

1. Writing technical reports, special study projects and lecture notes.
2. Expressing ideas in spoken English.
3. Understanding lectures and seminars.
4. Reading text books and journals.

This order of difficulty is very similar to that found for one of the groups included in the study made by Holes (op.cit.): the M.Sc. in Transportation and Environmental Planning. The order varied for the other group included in his survey, but for both groups, he felt that it was significant that greater difficulty was experienced in the productive skills, than the receptive skills, as this summary demonstrates.

Students' Suggestions for English Language Courses

The majority of the students interviewed said that they would like to attend an English language course at the College, to which the married students could bring their wives, some of whom spoke little or no English. They felt they, themselves, would benefit from either a study skills course or a general English course. In the words of one of the students, 'anything would help", as long as it gave them the opportunity to meet other people and to converse

in English, which serves to confirm the inter-relationship between social adjustment and English language development of overseas students.

Discussions with the Lecturing staff

A structured interview had been prepared, but was not adhered to closely, although it was helpful as a guide to the discussions. The lecturers tended to concentrate on the aspects of the problem on which they held definite views.

Apart from the Head of Postgraduate Studies, the former Head of Postgraduate Studies, the Head of Undergraduate Studies and the Senior Lecturer responsible for organising English language courses at the College, the other members of the lecturing staff were not selected on any particular basis, for discussion.

1. Listening Skills

The Lecture Situation

(i) Speed of Delivery: Many lecturers said that they made no concessions to the presence of overseas students in their rate of delivery in lectures, although it depended on the proportion of overseas students in the group. Two lecturers said that when overseas students were in the majority, which occurred in the postgraduate courses, they tended to pick out the main points of their lecture and emphasise them. Another said that he felt he taught rather than lectured, in such a situation. He described an interesting trial which ahd taken place at the College in the lecture situation in two identical courses in Mechanics for the Part I M.Sc. and Postgraduate Diploma groups. In one group, the lecturer had adjusted his rate of delivery to a speed which he felt the overseas students

could understand and had not completed the syllabus. In the other group, the lecturer had delivered the content at the pace necessary to cover the syllabus and had completed it. This point was emphasised by another member of staff; that in order to cover the content of the course, the rate of delivery in lectures had to be at the speed understood by native speakers of English, and as a result, it was too fast for the overseas postgraduates. The lecturers felt that the problem at undergraduate level did not appear to be a serious one, in the lecture situation.

(ii) Technical Terminology: One lecturer explained that he had not been aware initially that some overseas students in the undergraduate courses, including those with English as their second language, did not understand the terminology and therefore concepts in lectures on animal and crop production. A word like "sow", a female pig, was an example he gave. Students were assumed to possess a basic knowledge of biology at the commencement of their undergraduate course, but this was not always the case.

2. Speaking Skills

The lecturing staff were aware of the difficulties experienced by some overseas students in expressing themselves in spoken English. It was felt important for them to be able to do this and to use technical language to get the best out of their courses at the College.

A. The Lecture Situation

A variety of opinions were expressed on the ability of overseas students to ask questions in lectures:-

(i) Some lecturers felt that it depended on the personality rather than the English language proficiency of overseas students.

(ii) Another lecturer pointed out that students from certain

countries, as a result of their religion and upbringing do not question the opinions of 'age', that is, teachers and parents, whom they venerate. Holes (op.cit), in a discussion of the lecture situation, explains the difficulty experienced by students from some countries, in adjusting to the different relationships between lecturers and students which are found in British universities from those in their own countries.

(iii) Experience has shown that an apparent ability to communicate effectively through the spoken word, possessed by some overseas students, does not necessarily indicate an ability to either understand the response, or to write in English.

In the lecture I attended at the College, the lecturer dealt with questions asked during the course of the lecture, by both native and non-native speakers of English.

The lecturing staff at the College are readily available for students to consult them privately, about anything they have not understood or need help with, which many overseas students prefer to do instead of asking questions in lectures.

B. Social Occasions

It was considered that the opportunity to practise English conversation would aid the listening comprehension of overseas students, and that as well as becoming more fluent speakers of English, they would begin to think in English, which would assist them in writing skills.

The Senior Warden drew attention to the fact that the various nationality groups tended to "stick together", both on and off the College campus. In his opinion, an English course at the College would afford more opportunity for conversation practice and

facilitate the mixing of the groups.

3. Writing Skills

A The Lecture Situation

Two of the lecturers expressed the opinion that students should be able to take notes in lectures, because it was part of their training, and it also aided their memories. Another lecturer commented that British engineering students were not very proficient at taking notes in lectures. The view was also expressed that poor examination performance was a direct result of inadequate lecture notes.

Holes (op.cit.) suggests that lectures give a sense of proportion often lacking in tutorials and seminars. He believes that their function is to modify text-books, suggest wider reading and stimulate and inspire students, when recent developments are touched upon. He continues by saying, that students praise lectures which are "clear, orderly synopses."

As has already been explained, many lecturers at the College follow the practice of giving "hand-outs". The purpose of "hand-outs" varies from course to course. They may reproduce the entire contents of a lecture, to ensure that the student has a correct record, or contain a summary of the main points, which the student can follow up in text books. In other cases, they provide the only source material for a particular course, for which there are no suitable text-books.

The use of overhead projectors in lectures is a common practice at the College. Either prepared transparencies are used, or the lecturer writes down the main points and projects them as he lectures. A lecture which I attended where the second method was used, proved to be successful in slowing down the speed of delivery

of the lecture, and it permitted any points missed in the lecture to be seen on the transparency. Where prepared transparencies are used, sufficient time should be given for students to copy the projected notes, or the material reproduced in "hand-out" form. This practice is used by a lecturer at the College.

The opinion of the lecturing staff in Holes' survey (op.cit). was that "hand-outs" were easier to read than the students' own notes and obviated the necessity to write at speed. Instead, students should be able to sit and listen to the lecture material and concentrate on the content, noting extra points of interest. Many students still continued the practice of note-taking, however, and it was considered that overseas students were less discrimianting in their note-taking.

B Special Study Reports, Dissertations and Theses

Many of the lecturing staff explained that the supervision of special study reports and theses written by overseas students, involved them in a considerable amount of time and effort, because of the low standard of written English produced by some students. They stressed that this problem was by no means confined to overseas students, but that they were the ones most in need of help. Some supervisors explained that they tended to concentrate on helping overseas students with the English content of their written research, to the extent that the technical content was taking second place. One lecturer expressed the view that a supervisor had a more important role to play at the postgraduate level, in helping students with the written presentation of their research, than with the technical content. Another lecturer believed in giving a lot of guidance with the writing of a special study report, as it was often

the only time that a student received that kind of help. Some lecturers found that they had almost to completely re-write the English language content of students' theses, having satisfied themselves that there was evidence of intellectual input, and that the student could answer questions on the technical content. Yet others concentrated on the technical content of theses and special study reports and corrected only the worst English mistakes, otherwise they felt it could be very discouraging for the students. Another opinion expressed was that the award of an M.Sc. degree at a British university should also be an indication of a standard of proficiency in the English language. As one lecturer aptly put it to me, "the attitudes" of the lecturing staff with regard to how much help the supervisors should give their students, in correcting the English language content of their reports and theses, "go right across the board."

C. Technical Reports

The lecturing staff stressed the importance of the ability to write technical reports in the engineering profession. Samples of reports were available for consultation in the College library, but a view was expressed that these were often consulted for their factual content, instead of examples of how these reports should be done. Some lecturers would like to see some evidence of an ability to write technical reports in prospective students of the College, preferably by testing, although it was admitted that this would eliminate a considerable number of students. Another suggestion made was that the writing of technical reports could form the basis of specific training programmes at the College.

D. Examinations

Most of the lecturers were aware of the difficulty

experienced by overseas students in answering examination questions, when they have to write English at speed. They, therefore, made concessions for the standard of written English produced, if the answers contained the necessary technical content. The survey conducted by Holes (op.cit.) revealed similar views in the marking of examinations, when "allowance was always made for language difficulties, and if anything, over-compensated for."

One lecturer explained that many of the examination questions required essay-type answers. He said that engineering students are more accustomed to producing diagrams and doing calculations, and frequently do not know how to play essays. This difficulty, he added, was not confined to overseas students.

Examinations account for the major part of the assessment of all of the courses at the College, except for the higher degrees by research.

Summary

The productive skills, namely:-

(i) The writing of theses, special study reports, technical reports and adequate lectures notes, and

(ii) The ability to express ideas in spoken English, were considered to be the two most important areas of difficulty experienced by overseas students with the English language, in the opinion of the lecturing staff at the College, with whom I had discussion.

Testing

The pre-entry requirements of overseas students who make application to study at the College have already been explained.

One of the tests used by the British Council to assess the English language proficiency of prospective students is the Davies English Proficiency Test Battery.

As Hindmarsh (1977) explains, the 'Davies Test' was produced in the early 1960's as a result of the need for "some other form of measurement of English proficiency - - - for overseas students." he continues, that: "Itwas not always practicable or expedient overseas to use this battery of tests and there grew up alongside it an increasing formalisation of the subjective assessment which Council officers had been applying before objective tests became available." The subjective test consists of assessments of the understanding of spoken and written English, the ability to speak and write English and grades ranging from A to E are given for each component.

Hindmarsh (ibid.) points out that the availability of both of these methods of testing overseas, "began in the later 1960's to reveal some of the dimensions of testing needs overseas." Originally the need for English proficiency test materials had been to obtain an entry qualification to British universities, but it increased to include polytechnics, technical colleges, colleges of further education and secondary schools. He continues that the need for an assessment of language proficiency also developed in commerce and industry, for their training programmes for overseas personnel, which included technicians and craftsmen as well as managers and executives. As a result, "the need for English proficiency tests has become much more diversified and at the same time more specific," which led to the setting up of a working party by the British Council, in 1973, on English tuition and testing.

Responses to a questionnaire revealed that in 1973, a total of

9,695 tests of English language proficiency were administered by the British Council globally, which was almost double the number in 1971. The need for an "arsenal of testing instruments to meet an increasingly diverse and specific set of English language needs" was "one outcome of the Working Party's deliberations" Hindmarsh concludes.

Jordan (op.cit) reports: "Members of the SELMOUS group have provided the Committee of Vice-Chancellors with evidence of the urgent need for a valid and reliable test aimed at overseas post-graduate students intending to follow courses at universities in the United Kingdom."

It is understood from information given by the British Council, that a new test is at the working stage now. The specifications for it have been drawn up, and will be edited this year for trials later in the autumn. It contains six to seven modules in different disciplines, the first batch of which will fit in with the sort of disciplines British Council students follow when they come to Britain. The test could be expanded if needed.

Views expressed by Lecturers at the College on Testing

The lecturers stressed the need for an improvement in testing techniques of the English language proficiency of overseas students before they are admitted to the College.

From personal experience, some lecturers expressed their scepticism of a subjective assessment of English language proficiency, since they had found that good verbal ability was not necessarily an indication that a student would be able to cope with either the English language or the academic requirements of a course at the College.

Holes (op.cit) argues: "Even if there were a reliable English test for students', a lot depends on the correct and impartial administration of it in the student's own country." He continues that subjective impressions in assessing English proficiency are "likely to be even more fraught with dangers."

A Head of Department in the survey conducted by Holes (ibid.), also expressed his scepticism "of the results of the English test which the British Council usually administered to intending students," based on long experience of overseas students in his department.

Suggested Requirements of Testing Procedures

The following views were expressed by lecturers at the College on the testing of overseas students for English language proficiency:-

1. Proficiency in technical English, not simply general English should be indicated by tests.
2. A test should reflect the "real requirements" of courses at the College. Different skills were needed in the undergraduate courses, and tests should examine this aspect.
3. A study skills type of test is favoured.
4. The ability to write technical reports should be tested.
5. The ability to understand spoken English at speed should be tested.
6. There should be a threshold level of proficiency below which a student would not be accepted for admission.

Test Materials

The present and former Head of Postgraduate Studies suggested that a test should include a "mini-lecture" on tape of authentic-type

lecture material. After listening to it, the candidate should be required to make notes on the content and answer relevant written questions.

It is understood that testing material of this nature is a component of a test administered at the Asian Institute of Technology in Bangkok, Thailand, to prespective postgraduate students.

Mr S McDonough (personal communication) has suggested, however, that if British university students were expected to possess an advance knowledge of the vocabulary to be used in their courses, many of them would be excluded.

Points which have been taken into consideration are:-

1. The difficulties experienced in previous attempts to arrange a pre-sessional English language course for overseas postgraduate students.

2. That the revised testing methods in preparation are yet to be put into practice and validated by the British Council.

3. That there is no English language specialist on the staff of the College.

The type of course which the College could consider establishing, is a series of intensive short courses in English language study skills, in vacation periods, to be followed up by an in-term English language teaching programme. These courses could take place at the following periods of the academic year: ten days immediately before the academic year begins, one week towards the end of the Christmas vacation and one week at the beginning of the Easter vacation. Johns and Johns (1976), describe an intensive study skills course held at Birmingham University for eleven days and at Aston for fourteen days before the beginning of the academic year.

Advantages

1. Intensive short vacation courses in other discplines are a regular feature in the College's academic programme.
2. The arrival of postgraduate students a week to ten days before the academic year begins, is already an established practice at the College.
3. It is easier to draw on the services of 'visiting experts' to lecture for short periods, particularly during vacations.
4. The number of students to attend such a course will be known.
5. A course immediately before the beginning of the academic year would be invaluable as a "settling-in" period for postgraduate students, especially those from overseas.
6. Many overseas students remain on the campus during vacations.
7. Overseas undergraduate students would be able to attend the Christmas and Easter vacation courses.
8. The services of the lecturing staff of the College would be available at the periods suggested.

Organisation

A. Testing

An English language proficiency test should be administered by English language specialists to all students of the College who are not native speakers of English. Mackay and Mountford (1978) explain that such a test is obligatory for intending postgraduate students at the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and such a test is common practice at most British universities now.

The English Language Battery, known as ELBA, is used at several universities, and could be considered for testing at the College.

"Its primary purpose is to distinguish students, who have sufficient command of English to pursue their studies in institutions of higher education, where the language of instruction is English, from those who will experience varying but serious language difficulties," explains Ingram in the Test Manual. This test has been shown to have validity and reliability, although "correlations between language test scores and subject examinations are not very high," Ingram continues, for, "if good command of English was a guarantee of passing" examinations, whatever the subject, "no native speaker would ever fail." Ingram (ibid.) goes on to stress the importance for each institution of compiling its own criteria, before any decisions can be made as the result of using the test, and that it should be used by that institution for at least a year before this can be done.

In a test devised and used at Leeds University, Heaton and Pugh (1975(, "found that there is a significant difference between the mean English test score of students who failed and students who passed their courses at the university." They also found a fairly high significant correlation between the test score and examination performance of various groups of postgraduate students, which were remarkably consistent.

The purpose of administering a test of English language proficiency at the College, would be with a view to recommending those students who scored below a certain cut-off point, to attend the term-time English language course, which would be part of the overall programme.

B. Attendance

As it has been an established practice at the College, for new postgraduate students to arrive a week to ten days before

the beginning of the session, the suggestions for a pre-sessional course can be regarded as a structuring of this period.

It should be obligatory for all non-native speakers of English to attend the study skills section of the pre-sessional course. Students from European universities, in addition to other overseas students, would benefit from an opportunity to familiarise themselves with listening to English in the lecture situation, as their abilities in listening comprehension are sometimes over-estimated. They frequently experience difficulty when there is a change of register.

Morrison (1978), likens the situation faced by overseas post-graduate students in listening to lectures in English, to that which would be experienced by an English person "with School Certificate French, having to follow a lecture on advanced arboricultural economy, in a provincial French university."

Morrison (ibid.) points out that whatever the amount of exposure an overseas student has had to spoken English, in most case, it is unlikely to have been British English, spoken by a native speaker. Even the possession of a formal qualification in English does not equip overseas students "to follow spoken English in learning situations, with native-speaking lecturers, where no linguistic concessions are made" to their presence. This was confirmed in discussions with the lecturing staff at the College.

Description of the Course

1. Pre-sessional course

This would be organised on the same lines as a conference, to be attended by all new postgraduate students. Short introductory lectures, given by, for example, the Head of Postgraduate Studies, a Head of Department, the Senior Warden and other lecturers involved in postgraduate courses, should serve to explain the type of courses

to be followed and the facilities available at the College.

The study skills section of the course would concentrate on listening comprehension and note-taking skills, and a social component would enable the overseas students to improve their speaking skills.

2. Christmas Vacation Course

This would be a study skills course, concentrating on developing reading and writing skills, to include the writing of technical reports,

3. Easter Vacation Course

This course would concentrate on writing skills, in preparation for the writing of projects, special study reports, theses and dissertations.

4. Term-time Course

This would consist of four components:

(i) Remedial English language;

(ii) Study skills, as needed;

(iii) Social component;

(iv) General English for wives and dependents of overseas students.

Conclusion

Although this study was based on a fairly small sample from one particular institution, comparisons with similar studies suggest its potential generalisibility, in terms both of procedures and conclusions. The study has also tried to indicate ways in which a needs analysis can be used to indicate priorities in course design.

The organisation of pre-sessional courses, with special reference to Seminar Skills

S.R.Slater

I. PRE-SESSIONAL COURSES - REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite recent ominous changes in the economic climate, steady increases in the numbers of overseas postgraduates have in turn fostered the development of English for Academic Purposes (E.A.P.) that branch of English as a Foreign Language teaching which assists the overseas student in the improvement of the English Language skills needed for study and life in a British university. My concern in this paper is with the pre-sessional course, though clearly English language support will often continue alongside the specialised academic work undertaken by the student.

Within this general trend of expansion, there lie a whole series of problems for the course writer. The identification, selection and ordering of so-called 'needs', 'learners' needs', is carried out within the context of these problems. Compromises inevitably result but it is a healthy feature of current work in E.A.P. that attempts are constantly being made to refine and re-think course structure and course units.

The following short list of problems about courses or needs will be briefly reviewed in the light of the more particular focus of this paper, namely, a pre-sessional course of twelve weeks' duration for overseas post-graduates in the social sciences who come as British Council Study Fellows, and who proceed from their English course to various British universities or polytechnics to study for diplomas or higher degrees in a specialised field: - the list is compiled as a series of questions:

i. What sort of learners shall we be dealing with?

ii. What are their purposes in learning English?

iii. Under what circumstances and with whom will they use their English?

iv. How do they learn languages effectively?

v. How do they achieve academic success?

I. The Learners

Pre-sessional students are notorious for their lack of homogeneity (Jordan 1977; Straker-Cook 1977). They are from a large number of different countries and are often racially and culturally varied. The ages of the students span the mid-twenties to mid-forties band and they are of both sexes. Some of them have visited England before; for others it is their first trip.

Levels of proficiency in English skills range from barely intermediate to advanced. The type of instruction in English that the students have received will be varied and their academic qualifications also will reflect a broad range of specialisms within the blanket domain of the social sciences. Similarly, they have usually registered for a wide spectrum of courses in this country, ranging from programmes in Hospital Planning, medical demography, social administration to urban development, educational administration and librarianship.

The immediate implications of this heterogeneity are clear. Any system of grouping, be it on the basis of academic background, intended field of study, or English, proficiency will not be easy. A course to suit all tastes and requirements may be outside the scope of its writers in view of additional constraints such as time, money, equipment, prepared materials, temporary teaching staff etc.

Chosen approaches may prove to be eclectic, diplomatic and conservative if a 'middle ground' is sought as the optimal strategy

in the light of so many variable factors.

ii. Purposes

The overseas learner's purposes in seeking to improve her/his English are varied and negotiable. The struggle to clarify what they might be is predictably unstreamlined.

As Johns and Llewellyn point out, some students are concerned entirely with equipping themselves for the language demands of their academic specialisation; others, however, may take a more liberal view and want a general introduction to life in Britain. Clearly purposes as expressed by learners will relate language requirements more, or less, strongly to study demands. Purposes may also be subject to change as the learner's perceptions of his language proficiency and academic demands alter. It must also be remembered that as the pre-sessional course is usually mandatory for British Council Study Fellows, purposes may be diluted if the learner views such compulsion cynically.

The learner's purposes may alter to the extent that his prior expectations of the course fail to materialise. Disillusionment may lead both to criticism of the course rather than of him/herself and to endurance rather than endeavour.

It seems incumbent upon course writers, not only to endeavour to make the course relevant, lively and challenging but also if possible to send honest and detailed information to students before the course begins which states clearly, aims, types of lessons and why they have been selected, course limitations etc. In this way the learner has time to adjust his expectations and motivation in a more positive direction.

iii) Under what circumstances and with whom?

The specification of purposes is intimately tied to the communicative situations in which the learners are likely to be involved. The study-skills approach (Yorkey 1970, Candlin 1978) has emerged as a homogeneous framework on which a pre-sessional course can relevantly be erected. The logic of the framework is simple: all the students have to attend lectures with English as the medium, they must read technical literature in English, participate in seminars in English, write essays, reports, examination answers or dissertations. Consequently, all students should be instructed in the development of the skills which these activities require, e.g. making notes, constructing a written argument, listening for key information etc.

This simple logic disguises a plethora of additional problems. For instance most of the students will already be well versed in study skills in their native tongue. To some extent study may be idiosyncratically undertaken anyway, so study techniques as standardised procedures may conflict with personal styles of learning.

It seems more likely that students will be concerned to cope with the English and the content it communicates in the various study situations and to become aware of cultural factors which are relevant to these situations. They will be keen to receive lectures and seminars in their particular specialism and be interested in developing their ability to write about that specialism.

For the course writer, problems arise with regard to the choice of approach (functional? notional? structural? communicative? individualized? etc) and choice of materials (authentic? or contrived? what combinations of both types?) and, perhaps even more

important, the relative priority of the study skills or study activities.

In addition, it has emerged from surveys of overseas post-graduates (see Jordan 1977) that they are deficient in the use of informal, idiomatic English both within and outside of the study situation. Consequently 'Social English" has been advocated (Johnson and Morrow 1977) as worthy of inclusion in a pre-sessional course (especially one of the longer pre-sessionals such as an eight or twelve week course). In terms of our consideration of the circumstances in which these graduate learners might use English this raises an issue which is not strictly to do with language, namely, the degree to which the social welfare of an overseas graduate should be a key criterion in course design. One recalls with some sympathy Jordan's report (1977) of the Manchester and Newcastle surveys from which, it appears, many overseas graduates speak little English each day and watch a good deal of television. It is tempting to infer that the 'typical' overseas student feels ill-equipped to mix socially with the native English and that a pre-sessional course should repair this situation. Of course it may also be that the native English are ill-equipped to mix socially with the overseas student!

iv. How do students learn languages effectively?

Accounts of inconclusive results following the comparison of two or more teaching methods are legion in the annals of applied linguistics. Such findings help little to give us a firm understanding of how best to present and practise a foreign language. This state of affairs is of course not special to E.A.P. but it must be repeated if only to remind us that a good needs analysis does not take us too far towards a guarantee that effective learning will take place. The learner's aptitudes, motivation, adaptability, and so on, invade the course at all times. The many, thorny problems

surrounding these factors, however, must be side-stepped here, but not ignored.

v. Academic Success

As Johns and Llewellyn rightly remark:

'....we do not know about factors underlying academic success (p.43)

Such ignorance makes it difficult to establish study skill priorities with anything other than intuitive judgements based perhaps on course requirements. It may be, on the other hand, that factors such as ability to predict examination questions, ability to get help from others, ability to blend different textual sources in relevant parts of a project etc. are equally important to success.

The crucial concern of the pre-sessional course writer is to decide in what ways certain features of the language may be essential to academic success, and to teach those. Once again there may be little hard evidence to guide his decision. He may be left trusting adapting and pioneering E.A.P. courses.

NEEDS ANALYSIS

Strangely the concept 'need' as applied in the context of E.A.P. is rarely defined systematically. It tends to be taken for granted, as indicating some unproblematic sense of 'something required' or 'something lacking'. At this level obviously 'needs' can be created as much as discovered sothat there is a continuing cycle of needs identification, needs satisfaction, identification of new needs, their satisfaction, and so on. This possible 'production of needs' should be borne in mind as the discussion progress.

If we turn to some of the E.A.P. and E.S.P. literature for clarification of the concept of 'needs' we are soon faced with a

flurry of other concepts. Jones and Roe (1975) view needs as representing a set of problems; James (1977) believes language needs 'are related to language use'; Mackay (1978) equates 'needs' with the specific purposes of the language learners. In another article with Mountford, he suggests that the language needs of his post-graduate soil scientists are dicatated '.....by the particular demands made upon them by the nature of their academic and practical work'(p.132) This sort of remark reminds us of the relationship between the identification of language 'needs' and the permitted framework within which these 'needs' can be specified. Mackay and Mountford clearly restrict themselves to the study framework.

The identification of 'needs' currently seems to link strongly with what is loosely termed a 'communicative approach' to course design. It is not a necessary link, as one could just as easily specify needs in terms of linguistic structures which have been found to occur frequently in the social science literature or the literature of some other specialist field.

I mention the above point to emphasise the fact that even if one uses a lengthy questionnaire as an aid to the determination of language needs, the eventual identification of those needs and their translation into a course will probably reflect a view of language which the researcher had adopted before the questionnaire was administered. Survey techniques should not be seen as placing the identification of needs on some sort of 'scientific' footing; they merely provide information which is manipulated to suit a favoured view of language. The distinction between 'real' and 'felt' needs should be re-evaluated in the light of the above assertion.

As with 'purposes', it is necessary to note that 'needs' can change with time. It may well be that a pre-sessional course is

written to meet needs identified via surveys among academic staff and students before the academic year. It would seem a sensible practice to carry out a post-sessional survey to ascertain the perceived value of the English course in the light of the actual academic experience. By that time, different 'needs' might be selected.

CONCLUSIONS

'Needs' are negotiable and cumulative and difficult to order in terms of priority. Methods of determining 'needs' all seem to reflect a pre-determined view of language which is the course writer's chosen perspective. Consequently any information which is collated on learners' language problems or deficiencies is translated into 'needs' which are in turn translated into course components reflecting the chosen perspective. If there are 'real' needs, then they must also be viewed as 'produced' needs.

Although 'needs' are viewed from the learner's point of view, there is some reluctance to base courses heavily on learners' evaluations of their own language requirements when these are informally expressed.

The communicative approach seems to be widely favoured as the conceptual framework within which 'needs' are translated into course materials. I tend to accept this view of language as the best one for pre-sessional courses in English for overseas social science graduates. The communicative or rhetorical-communicative approach (Straker-Cook 1977) seems best suited to mesh with study skills, and 'Social English'. As we have seen, the basic study situations are the only quasi-homogeneous situations shared by our otherwise diverse post-graduate learners. Compromises seem unavoidable.

The place of 'Social English' or informal language of interaction

in pre-sessional courses seems merited, especially on a twelve-week course. The learners' 'felt needs' may be social or personal as well as linguistic and certainly it would seem wise to make sure the course contains plentiful opportunity for social interaction of an informal nature both inside and outside the classroom. (see Davies 1977)

As we move now to suggest an outline for a course in more definite terms, the selected decisions on priorities, needs, objectives must be specified.

COURSE FRAMEWORK

There follows an outline for a twelve week pre-sessional course for graduates in the Social Sciences.

I make the following assumptions:

i. The student's prime concern is to successfully complete his academic course. To do so he must meet his course requirements and adequately complete written assignments, examinations and possibly a written dissertation;

ii. The ability to cope with study situations such as lectures and seminars satisfied a psychological need rather than an academic necessity. Their importance to a pre-sessional course is seen as subsidiary to the top priority activities of writing and reading.

iii. Students do not really need to learn the skill of studying per se, as they have already developed it.

iv. Some form of orientation programme is useful as an introduction to the course and to the eventual university.

v. Social language or the language of the informal interation should be incorporated into the course in an attempt to stimulate confidence in all conversational situations that the student is

likely to face. Perhaps such language training could be incorporated into a broadened seminar component such that the seminar could be viewed as merely one form of social interaction in which discourse is initiated, maintained and terminated..

vi. The grouping of students on the basis of their relative proficiency in various language skills as determined by tests specially written to reflect the emphases of the prersessional course seems the strongest grouping criterion.

Grouping on the basis of academic specialisms is possible for some activities but academic homogeneity is rarely apparent in the social sciences.

Proficiency-based grouping seems to be the furthest one can go (given staff, time, money and materials' limitations) in the direction of individualization (see Higgens and Davis 1977)

vii. As the study skills part of the course cannot easily be based on individualized materials tailored to each student's academic specialism, I am assuming that a thematic approach is the most relevant. With social science students, this would involve using themes that are inevitably relevant to all social science specialisms because of their generality, e.g. social class and inequality, power, education, social change, economic growth etc. Materials would be selected for lecture, seminar and grammar and writing components which were representative of these themes. (see Johns and Llewellyn 1977.)

More specialized materials could be compiled for use later in the course in conjunction with the preliminary reading lists students would have received vis a vis their academic courses.

Briefly then the course might be constructed around this framework:

1) Weeks 1 and 2 - orientation programme, including a full description of the pre-sessional course and what it seeks to achieve, some information on university regulations, use of facilities etc. (see Allwright 1976), social activities to bind the group in a socially cohesive way, and talks from previous students about the language difficulties that arise at university. This final type of orientation I see as important as a reminder from peers (i.e. not British Council or language teachers) that language proficiency is really important.

2) Weeks 3 to 9 - study skills based on themes.

Materials to be fashioned to develop textual comprehension, and to incorporate much background preparation of lectures or texts used so that students gain cultural insights and insights into the attitudes conveyed in lectures rather than merely main points of information (see Gillian Brown 1977)

Strongest timetabling priority to be given to grammar and writing; frequent short written assignments rather than a project (projects tend to make students over-anxious about project length and they rarely have time to produce original, carefully constructed written pieces of that length).

Lecture, and seminar skills to be accorded minor consideration as compared to reading and writing. Informal language to be taught in conjunction with a seminar module in order to incorporate a broader sociolinguistic perspective.

3) Weeks 10 to 12 - more individualised work in specialist areas if materials have been collected to enable this.

This sketch obviously omits details such as visiting speakers, social outings, British Council-type activity days etc. but I hope

it conveys to some small degree the language needs that I judge to be the most important to such students.

Finally, I will summarise the intended objectives of such a pre-sessional course in the following terms:

1. To improve the standard of students' academic writing (examples of various standards of written work from past students of the various academic courses might be obtained from universities as a guide to students on current pre-sessionals)
2. To improve students' ability to read academic texts quickly and effectively.
3. To improve students' capacity to understand spoken discourse as in lectures, seminars and informal settings, such that they are able to assimilate not merely information, but the speaker's attitudes and register.
4. To build students' confidence (where necessary) to initiate and maintain discourse in academic and other contexts.
5. To prepare students for university life via a brief orientation.

II. TOWARDS A COURSE UNIT

In this part I want to examine a segment of the course outlined in the first section and then propose a course unit. I have chosen the listening and speaking skills. These skills are viewed more particularly within the context of seminars or other forms of academic discussion.

My choice is prompted partly by interest and partly by letters received from overseas students whom I have taught on a pre-sessional course. These students wrote to me at the end of the second term at their respective British universities. They evaluated the pre-sessional

course they had followed in the light of the demands of their post-graduate studies.

Many of them remarked that the preparation they had received for seminar situations had been inappropriate. They had been taught to use polite, formal prefaces in order to enter discussions (e.g. 'May I come in at this point, please?') However, they reported that these prefaces were not used by their English peers, who, on the contrary were quick and direct when entering discussions. The overseas graduates were unprepared for these conversational skills. Conversational analysis, or the ethnography of speaking, has provided us with some systematic descriptions of the rules and norms of speaking in groups. The notion of 'turn-taking' indicates the circumstances in which one speaker takes over from another by interrupting, or by being nominated, or by taking advantage of silence. In various ways the floor is yielded or seized regularly, and usually unself-consciously, by native speakers who are adept at being able to predict the last part of another speaker's utterance before that speaker has completed it. Hence native speakers can jump in quickly and keep conversation moving quickly (for a summary of conversational analysis see Coulthard 1977). Moreover, they can retain the initiative in discussions by the use of various verbal 'fillers' which have low information value but which enable the speaker to stall whilst processing his next piece of more important information (examples might be 'well, anyway...'; 'as far as I can see...'; ' but..er ' etc.

When these skills are considered from the language teacher's point of view the problems are formidable. How can one quickly enable an overseas learner to master the linguistic and cultural signs and expressions of the native English conversationalist? If one adds the related question How can one devise materials to achieve this

purpose without ending up with something embarrassingly artificial? the problems are well stated. To some extent every language drill suffers from the same malaise. It tries to establish a linguistic structure or functional phrase within the learner's active repertoire but sacrifices any semblance of a normal interactive situation.

Worse problems emerge if we incorporate the seminar situation as the framework within which conversational skills are to be nurtured. As Ruth Beard (1970) has pointed out the term 'seminar' covers a wide range of different interactional formats, each presumably with its own rules or norms of speaking. Add to this the potentially broad range of academic themes that could be the topic of a particular seminar and the situation looks desperate. Excerpts from authentic seminars may in many cases be too subject-specific to attract the interest of all the students (see Morrison.1978)

Numerous attempts have been made to teach seminar skills in pre-sessional courses. The work of T.F.Johns at Birmingham University is perhaps the best known. He has outlined certain functional categories applicable to discussion situations. These include:

a) Metacomment - various forms of indicating what one is about to say or has just said.e.g.
   i. amplification ('If I can expand on what I mean...')
   ii. explanation ('What I meant was...')
   iii. restriction ('But not in all cases...')
   iv. exemplification ('Yes, for instance....') ,etc.

b) Mitigation - (softening criticism in order to maintain support from other participants)

c) Repair - (e.g. 'I'm not sure if I follow you....')

d) Handling discontinuity - redirecting the discussion back to the main topic.

e) Entry - selecting the appropriate moment and the appropriate preface for entry into the discussion. e.g. 'Yes.....' pr 'If I can just come in here.'

Johns uses excerpts from a radio programme called 'A word in edgeways' as a basis for identifying and drilling these categories. The programme involves a discussion of topical issues by three guests (two of whom are usually academics) and a chairman.

Johns' categories are carefully thought out and seem to be a sound basis for the writing of appropriate materials for seminar skills. Nevertheless they can be criticised on several grounds:

1. As Coulthard (177) points out, some of the verbal prefaces prior to the main statement of interruption (e.g. I'd like to come in here if I may...') which Johns drills are '....formal, if not stilted' (p.145) Johns would defend these formal prefaces on the grounds that they give overseas learners a firm verbal rubric which can be used to interrupt politely and confidently. My earlier remarks tend to support those of Coulthard.

2. The teaching and drilling of a precise set of metacomment presupposes sophisticated listening skills. The learner cannot successfully make comments in a seminar unless he is deciding what she/he hears, quickly and accurately.

3. If the overseas student is introduced to the categories of metacomment by name (amplification, restriction, etc) then this seems to involve her/him in an additional and unnecessary learning task.

In view of the above observations, my approach to fashioning relevant seminar skills for overseas students would concentrate on:

a) Improving relevant listening skills, extensively and intensively. This would involve an exhaustive programme of

listening to extracts from seminars or discussions in order to practise the many facets of listening expertise, e.g. phonological, semantic, syntactic, paralinguistic, sociolinguistic.

I make the assumption that, in general, seminar situations require students to do much more listening than speaking. This assumption may be augmented to the extent that some students actively avoid too much spoken involvement in seminars.

Clearly the collection of materials for listening would be crucial and access to a listening library preferable.

b) Improving speaking skills. This would involve structured attempts to build up speed of response, verbally holding the floor, general interruption procedures, identification of formality levels and ability to switch from formal to informal language.

Additionally students would be involved in discussion situations of various types, including board games, real seminars free discussions in informal settings. Within the bounds of relevance, materials and themes would attempt to be provocative or light-hearted in order to stimulate student involvement.

The unit that I am offering no doubt raises its own set of problems. It is intended as the lessons for the first week of the seminar component (five lessons in all).

Some of the lessons are based on language laboratory work. Productive laboratory exercises which offer open-ended drills are notoriously difficult to control (see ELT Documents 75/1) Moreover, as Crystal and Davy (1975) point out:

'It is difficult to devise exercises for the development of productive ability in colloquial speech without introducing a

contradiction between the maintenance of structured drills and an appearance of spontaneous informality' (p.124)

Despite such warnings I feel that the individuality of laboratory work is a gentle way to start building confidence to discuss freely in groups in a foreign language. Language laboratory work, if offered, either on a self access basis or short time-tabled slots, does seem to guarantee that each person offers regular contributions.

Each lesson in the unit is composed of a short laboratory exercise followed by back-up work in pairs or slightly larger groups. The lessons aim to promote speed of response and general devices for interrupting and responding in discussions. The exercises are not authentic excerpts from university seminars. At this preliminary stage of the seminar skills component, I think artificial language chunks have the advantage of clarity and lack of overly specialised or colloquial language.

The unit I am offering might fit into the rest of the seminar skills component in the following way: After the introductory week of laboratory work with the intention of fashioning fast responses via general interruption or follow-up verbal devices there would follow four weeks in which students would listen to excerpts (of approximately one and a half minutes) from appropriate radio or T.V. discussions or university seminars. These would not have to be exclusively academic, but should be of general interest. It might be worthwhile (if feasible) to video-tape dicussions between a small number of language teaching staff, chaired by an outsider, following the format of 'a word in edgeways'. I suggest this last-mentioned approach because I think students take a keener interest in video-taped (i.e. small screen) discussions in a foreign language when they can identify more personally with the participants,

and have already accumulated some familiarity with their language and personalities.

The purposes of using excerpts from discussions or seminars would be the following:

a) To aid listening comprehension of this type of discourse, not only in terms of thematic content but also in terms of speaker's attitudes, register etc.

b) To identify speakers' intentions and the functions of their utterances in terms of the theme and the dynamics of conversation tactics.

c) To identify interruption and questioning strategies.

d) To observe culturally shaped paralinguistic cues.

e) To analyse linguistic structures commonly used.

f) To attempt to predict what has preceded the excerpts and what will follow.

Exercises would be devised to practise some of the above features, again in small groups or in the laboratory or tv. studio.

In the final two weeks of the seminar skills component, students would organise their own seminars and video-tape them for analysis. This time the groups would be larger (about ten participants). Follow up discussions would trace some of the aspects outlined earlier. Visiting speakers and lecturers in the social sciences would be invited to conduct seminars; students would again be video-taped and any differences in formality discussed. Communication games (especially board games involving a lot of verbal interaction) might be used occasionally to inject non-academic, but valuable, diversions.

LESSON 1

In the first lesson it seems advisable to explain to students the aims of the entire seminar component and then the more particular

aim of this lesson.

This first exercise (to be taped for use in the laboratory) is tended to stimulate fast decoding and to elicit fast responses. Students should be warned that they have to reply very quickly with some sort of sensible response before the next question occurs on the tape. The student is to deduct one from his potential maximum score for every question he fails to answer. He can re-run the tape a second time if he wants to try for a maximum score. It might be worth using different voices and different speeds of delivery with an advanced group, and a more standardised voice and speed with a poor group.

Instructions to students

The following list of phrases can each be used, if appropriate, as part of your spoken reply to the voice on the tape. Alternatively you can supply your own answer:

These phrases would be explained and illustrated before the tape is set in motion

a) I'm not sure, around .... I think
b) I think it's about.....
c) about .....
d) round about.....
e) The latest figures are.....
f) I've no idea
g) ..... as far as I know
h) No, it's about .....

Try to use as many of them as you can, but do not worry if you are unable to use any of them. The important thing is to answer quickly, as soon as the question has ended or before if you can.

ON THE TAPE

* An example would precede the following so that students would understand what is required.

1. Unemployment in Britain is about 6% now, what is it in your country?

RESPONSE:

2. Isn't world population about 360 million now?

RESPONSE:

3. When did the Vietname War end, 1967 wasn't it?

RESPONSE:

etc. to occupy about 5 - 10 minutes

LESSON 2

This lesson is designed to suggest the use of an 'echo strategy' as a means whereby a student can claim the floor quickly from the previous speaker by repeating some of the previous speaker's last remark before delivering the substance of his reply or comment. The 'echo strategy' provides a sort of extended 'filler', which is particularly appropriate in a more formal discussion situation but is adaptable to less formal circumstances.

Example

SPEAKER A: The Communist Party in Britain is hardly a big threat to the two-party system

SPEAKER B: (Formal) The Communist Party is hardly a big threat, I agree, (but) .....

SPEAKER B: (Less Formal) O.K. it's not a big threat (but) .....

Students would be introduced at length to the concept of an 'echo strategy' (it is a fairly common feature of conversation probably in other languages) and then asked to try to adopt it in some appropriate way to the following statements on tape. The

tapescript might feasibly be studied overnight by a weaker group. Again speed of response will be emphasised i.e. students are to respond as quickly as they sensibly can.

1. Unemployment is bound to remain high in all countries.....

RESPONSE: I agree..... (but).....

2. Solar energy is just too expensive to develop.....

RESPONSE: O.K. it's..... but.....

3. The British National Health Service is one of the finest in the world.....

RESPONSE: It may be . . . . . (but). . . . . .

etc. with variations of echo strategy.

As follow up exercises for the remainder of the lesson I suggest a discussion of informal and formal responses so that students gain some extra insight into linguistic appropriacy. In addition students could work in pairs with copies of current newspapers and periodicals. One student could read out an article or report of an event (preferably an international event) and the other could interrupt him at appropriate pauses (again to be explained) to make echo-strategy plus his comment. Then the individuals in each pair could change. It might be advisable to let the pairs discuss freely if they look bored or if they want to.

LESSON III

In this lesson the students try to predict the end of an utterance having heard part of it on tape. They are required to speak their prediction on to the tape as soon as they can.

At the end of each group of incomplete utterances, the full versions are presented on tape so that the student can compare her/his version with the original.

The lesson would steepen its grading by eventually asking the learner to make an appropriate response to an incomplete utterance, as if he had heard it all.

Although the following examples are not arranged thematically it might be advisable to present groups of incomplete utterances around a common, and relevant, theme.

EXAMPLES

1. If the Government isn't going to act to reduce poverty, who .....

   RESPONSE

2. Your figure for the present rate of economic growth in your country is rather high. I think it's a bit .....

   RESPONSE

3. The car worker's job is boring, there's no way you can .....

   RESPONSE

LESSON IV

This fourth lesson is intended as an elaboration of the concept of conversational 'fillers' introduced via 'echo strategies'. Once again the students will be told that any speaker is liable to be interrupted if he pauses and leaves silence to reign. Fillers such as 'um' and 'er' still render the speaker vulnerable but may enable him to keep the floor whilst he gathers his thoughts. Fillers which are more recognisable as language, e.g. 'as far as I can seep, 'well I suppose one might view it in these terms', 'if you see what I mean' render the speaker reasonably safe from interruption but they carry little or no information.

The tape for this lesson contains interview-type questions. The student has to answer each question sensibly and without any

pauses for a period of fifteen seconds. When he hears a cough on the tape, the fifteen seconds have elapsed and the next question is posed. The student will be encouraged to use any 'filler' that he can when he thinks he is going to be silent. A list of possible fillers will be provided.

e.g. the . . . . . um, er the . . . . .

and . . . . . um,

but . . . . . um

"That's not an easy question to answer....

"Well as far as I can see.. . . .

"Let me see now ..... .

"As I've just said . . . . . .

These would be illustrated in use

TAPED QUESTIONS

1. Tell me what social conditions are like in your country?
2. What sort of commodities do you import into your country?
3. Is unemployment likely to increase in your country in the next ten years?

Back up exercises might involve a modified version of the game 'Just a Minute' with participants penalised only if there is a silence of more than two seconds duration. Alternatively students could work in pairs - one to ask questions, the other to answer them. Within a given time span (say two or three minutes) the questioner has to ask as many questions as he can without being unduly rude by seizing his opportunity when the answerer pauses or uses weak 'fillers' like 'um' or 'er'. Positions are changed and the winner is the one who has asked the most questions. (questions might be best prepared in advance and put on cards if learners are likely to be incapable of formulating them. With a weak group, more straightforward practice

exercises might be preferable to communication games.

LESSON V.

The final lesson of this first week is a light-hearted attempt to reinforce the students' awareness of the distinctions between formal and informal language. After the student has completed the taped exercise, a discussion might be initiated to discuss the appropriateness of responses in conversations and discussions and how contextual features such as relationship of participants, topic of conversation etc. can affect the impact of particular responses. Stereotypic attitudes might be discussed (as suggested by Gillian Brown 1977)

TAPED INSTRUCTIONS

You are a student involved in a variety of discussion situations. Read from your tapescript the response that seems most appropriate to the previous speaker's remark. Answer as soon as the speaker finishes.

Students' tape-script will only have possible responses, not the cues.

1. Miss Fujio has kindly told us of the current economic situation in Thailand . . . . .
   a) Japan not Thailand
   b) Excuse me, I'm sorry to interrupt but I was discussing Japan
   c) Wake up, I'm Japanese not Thai
2. It would appear that you have misunderstood my initial definition
   a) O.K. O.K., so you didn't make it clear.
   b) I'm sorry, perhaps you could explain it again please
   c) Explain it again then.
3. That lecture on energy resources was a waste of time; the guy's a real bore,

a) I'm not of the same opinion I'm afraid

b) Do you think so? I thought he was O.K.

c) Surely you're not serious.

CONCLUSION

Diagnosis of problems is easier than cure in the field of language teaching. The practical suggestions I have offered are, as yet, untried and would need to be judged, modified or discarded after trial use.

It may well be that the great diversity of language needs in E.A.P. should draw us more and more towards building up large varied and graded collections of successfully tested, self-access materials so that the overseas graduate can:

1. Receive more tutorial guidance on his personal language profile, and his particular set of language needs, vis a vis his academic goals.
2. Improve his English more autonomously which implies a reduction of the number of orthodox classroom lessons.

These would intuitively seem to be two directions in which to move with the pre-sessional graduate student from overseas.

Notes towards meeting the pre-session needs of future students of conference interpretation using English as a source language

T. J. Martin

1. Justification and Location of the Course

With the projected expansion of the European Communities to include Greece (1981), Spain (1983), Portugal (no date set), and much later Turkey (no date set), there will be a need to provide conference interpreters able to work both from and into the languages corresponding to these countries. The actual full-time training of these interpreters in schools which are recognised by the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) is not, however, the interest of this paper. In the case of professional training, the stage - and the responsibility - are much better left to practising, career conference interpreters. The point of this paper is, rather, to try and establish the kinds of linguistic skills which tertiary-level, non-native learners of English might usefully be encouraged to develop before they decide or embark upon full-time training as an interpreter.

In Britain, that full-time training begins at a postgraduate level, while on the Continent and elsewhere it generally takes place during the final year of a four or five year 'undergraduate' study scheme. This paper is primarily concerned with the latter setting; that is, it aims to outline a course - and materials for that course - which could be integrated into the penultimate year of undergraduate study within a continental European university.

In the recognised,university-affiliated 'Dolmetscherschulen' in Europe, the end of that penultimate year marks the point at which undergraduates who have passed their exams with some degree of success are in a position to decide the final orientation they wish the continuation and completion of their studies to take. In effect, this is a decision either to go on and train as a translator or to go on and train as an interpreter. However, since until that point the language skills which students have developed have

been almost exclusively in the translation mode, this decision is often made on a rather hit-and-miss basis. It would be my hope that a pre-session course such as the one I intend to outline here might, theoretically, be used as a 'suitability' yardstick for entry on to interpreters' training schemes. Again, not wishing in any way to usurp the competence of practising interpreters to select their candidates, I should stress that by 'suitability' I mean far less an outside assessment by third parties (eg. teachers following, perhaps, some of the suggestions made below) than an internal process on the part of the student, who is becoming aware earlier than he or she perhaps normally would of the kinds of skill which a conference interpreter must have or develop.

As a final point in the general 'location' of the proposals which this paper contains, it should be said that the development of many of the language skills which the suggested course aims to encourage could anyway be justified within an undergraduate course, without recourse to some future professional motive on the part of the student. In Europe, that vocational element is, by and large, inherent in the initial choice of undergraduate study, so that to talk of 'specific purpose' language learning within under- rather than post-graduate study schemes seems in no sense incongruous. In Britain, where undergraduate study is, with a few exceptions, markedly non-vocational in character and 'specific purpose' language learning is what foreigners come here to do, it is not something which we could seriously see ourselves as doing, either at under-, post-, or non-graduate levels. Clearly, this has to do with the increasing dominance of English as a world language - a trend which

is unlikely to be reversed. However, within the localised (and admittedly restricted) setting of the European Communities on which this paper is concentrating, there will, as remarked above, be a need for anglophone linguists with Spanish, Portuguese, Modern Greek, and Turkish as foreign languages, and it might be thought that British universities should take note of this. A small but not insignificant step in this direction could be marked by the inclusion of more practical, 'manipulative' language skills into the foreign language curriculum, so that even within a non-vocational framework, British undergraduates studying, say, Spanish or Portuguese, might see doors opening which a study of literature and/or syntactic minutiae alone would more than likely have left closed. If this were the case, there might be some basis for believing that a revival of foreign language learning in Britain is not entirely beyond the bounds of possibility.

2. Background and Terminology

The drawback of an introduction as long as the foregoing is that terms are introduced without the appropriate definitions or explanations. The present section attempts to remedy this.

In the previous section, we set a context for what the title of this paper calls the 'pre-session' needs of future interpreters. In doing so, a necessary distinction came to light - that between translations and interpreting - and this distinction must be explained more fully. There is also the question of the 'source language' (in this case English) referred to in the title; that too must be glossed in relation to interpreting. When this further, more technical context-setting has been achieved, we

may begin, in the next section, to make good our claim to be establishing the kinds of linguistic skills which non-native learners of English might usefully develop before opting for training as interpreters.

It is well known that translation is an activity whose results appear in written rather than spoken form. It is perhaps less well known that the results of interpreting may involve both the written and the spoken modes, though with the former always as a precursor to the latter. That form of interpreting which involves both writing and speaking is known as 'consecutive' interpreting. It involves the interpreter listening to and taking notes on a speech (or indeed any manifestation of spoken language) as it occurs, and then redelivering that speech in the language required. From the days of the Versailles Peace Treaty though to the Nuremberg Trials, this form of interpreting was the accepted international norm. Nowadays, however, the only international forum which continues to use it as a regular basis is the Security Council of the United Nations. The reason for its demise is that it is extremely time-consuming: obviously, each speech is delivered at least twice, and very often three or four times in succession, depending on the linguistic composition and requirements of the conference. Despite its fall from popularity, though, no interpreter is passed through a recognised training without first taking and passing tests in consecutive interpreting. It cannot, then, be dismissed as peripheral or secondary.

The other major form of interpreting, the one which is both more commonly used and perhaps more widely familiar, is known as 'simultaneous' interpreting. When simultaneously interpreting,

the interpreter is seated - with a colleague on relief - before a microphone in a sound-proof booth, and is expected to redeliver the speech as it occurs through his headphones, in the language required. This mode is exclusively oral, and the advantages in terms of time-saving need hardly be pointed out.

The differences between the two activities as outlined above are important, and although simultaneous interpreting will almost certainly take up 80-90% of the conference interpreter's professional time, account must clearly be taken of the different skills these two activities require when designing a course intended to form a basis for and an aid to the interpreter's actual training. However, the very real differences involved between consecutive and simultaneous interpreting should not blind us to two crucial similarities which underlie the whole activity of conference interpreting.

The first is that the common denominator and sine qua non of all interpreting is listening - or more accurately the ability to listen - to a message encoded in a language other than one's own. There is, in other words, no form or mode of interpreting of which it can be said that 'listening' is not the central feature. Clearly, then, listening skills must be the linchpin of any course designed to be of aid to would-be interpreters. The second crucial similaritiy between all forms of interpreting is that the conference interpreter - except in very special circumstances-always works towards his mother tongue. His foreign languages are referred to in the profession as "passive" or "source" languages, and his mother tongue as his "active" language. This means that any foreign language course designed to help future interpreters will be teaching what

the student will come to regard as a 'passive' language, and we have to ask ourselves what implications this will have for the design of the course. What, for example, does the term 'passive' mean when transferred from the interpreting to the teaching context? In view of the recent emphasis laid upon 'communicative competence' (Hymes 1964) and on 'use' rather than 'usage' (Widdowson 1975), this seems an important question to answer.

What is essential in this connection is to distinguish the interpreter's very precise technical meaning for the term 'passive language' from the less precise use of the term 'passive' as found, for example, in the phrase 'passive vocabulary'. It is necessary to do this because what the interpreter, consecutive or simultaneous, actually does with his passive languages clearly goes far beyond the stage of more or less exact semantic recognition often implied by the phrase 'passive vocabulary'. The interpreter's skill is, in fact, pre-eminently an active one, and any materials designed to help him should always bear this in mind. Mere exposure, either random or controlled, to areas of the target language (later his 'source' language) without a parallel concentration on transformation skills of some kind will, in other words, serve very little purpose. So, what will later become a 'passive' language is to be taught in an 'active' way. The question, of course, is 'how?'. A passing reference to "transformation skills of some kind", as above, is certainly too vague to pass muster. We need to be much more specific about how the 'terminal skill' - consecutive and simultaneous interpreting - and how its component 'macro-skill' - listening - can be broken down into teachable and practisable sub-skills. The following taxonomy is suggested as

workable:

Sub-skills of consecutive and simultaneous interpreting:-

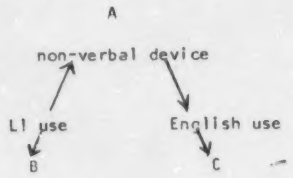
a) transfer skills.

b) transformation skills.

c) transposition skills.

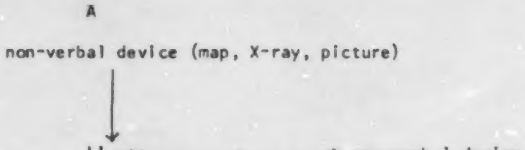
We shall discuss each of these, briefly, in order.

Taking 'transfer skills' first, we can say that by these is meant the ability to use language to talk about, and from, a non-linguistic stimulus, such as a map. The use of the term 'transfer'here is derived from Widdowson's (1975) notion of 'information transfer', a notion which Widdowson sees as valuable in specific purpose language teaching, especially the teaching of foreign science students. On this view, the use of information transfer exercises in specific purpose language teaching represents what is called by Widdowson a "three-way translation process", a process which is depicted in the following manner:



In the above, the non-verbal device is held to represent "the universally conventionalised expression of the underlying communicative system of science", and the movements C A B and B A C the 'translation' processes of comprehension and composition respectively. (Widdowson, 1975, p9) Our own use of the non-verbal device, and thus of information transfer, is much simpler in conception, and

can be depicted as follows:



That is, the student 'transfers' the information from visual to verbal mode, while his co-students re-transfer, as best they can, to the visual. The verbal procedure, as the diagram makes clear, is carried out exclusively in the student's L1. The aim of developing this 'transfer' sub-skill is twofold: i) to prevent what actors call 'drying', ie to practise fluency in speaking; and ii) to develop sufficient precision in the use of ones own language to enable others to abstract the essentials from what one is saying.

Taking next b), 'transformation skills, by these we mean two things: i) the ability to use the full resources of ones L1 to express the same things differently and different things uniformly, and ii) the ability to see how the same potential is inherent in one's L2 and L3, ie in one's 'passive' or 'source' languages. This is by far the broadest of the sub-skills, involving as it does a familiarity with the semantic, syntactic, and stylistic potentials of both one's 'active' and one's 'passive' languages. Its aim, when practised, might be thought of as promoting linguistic flexibility.

Finally, with regard to c), the 'transposition skills', we are referring here to that set of skills which most directly enable a person to use his L1 to render, consecutively or simultaneously, the complete message contained in a stretch of L2 or L3.

Gerver (1972) has brought such skills under the umbrella heading of 'attention-sharing capacities'. By these he means the normally under-developed ability to perform both receptive and productive tasks simultaneously without a resultant information loss on one of the two 'channels'. The kinds of activity with which this sub-skill is associated will, for our purposes, be those of listening and note-taking, and listening and speaking; the aim of such activities, when practised, will be to encourage comprehensibility, coherence, and exactitude in the L1 output.

We are nearly at the stage, now, when a detailed and graded needs analysis for would-be interpreting students can be formulated. Before we move on to that needs analysis, though, it might be as well to recap on some of the points brought up in this section.

There are two major types of interpreting, consecutive and simultaneous; while the differences between them are important, and should certainly be taken into account when designing exercises, the two features common to all conference interpreting provide a sounder basis for methodology. These features are aural comprehension of the 'source' language and fluent oral production in the mother tongue. The aim of full-time training courses for interpreters is doubtless to ensure that these two features coalesce consistently into one; the aim of a pre-session course, such as the one outlined below, is to ensure that both of these features are present in the student's linguistic competence, and to suggest ways in which their future coalescence might be facilitated.

It was suggested in this connection that the indentification and practice of certain sub-skills could be of use. These were:

sub-skills	language direction	
1. transfer skills	non-verbal device	LI
2. transformation skills	neutral	
3. transposition skills	Ls 2 and 3	LI

It is now suggested that these skills are ordered from most basic to most sophisticated, and can therefore serve as grading criteria for our needs analysis, and the exercises based on it. In themselves the sub-skills do not suggest a suitable allocation of time to each, though 1 should definitely precede 2 and 3. As 'transformation skills' (2) have already been dubbed above as covering the 'broadest' area, it might seem logical that the greatest amount of time should be alotted to these. This is in principle true, but in fact 'transposition' exercises (3) should always be carefully interspersed with 'transformation' skills, since at this stage they can serve as a valuable diagnostic aid to the teacher. This point about diagnostic value will be explained more fully below. The temporal interspersion of the two types of exercise (more exactly, skill to be practised) is marked by the double-headed arrow in the diagram immediately above.

As a final point in relation to the 'timing' of the sub-skills exercises, the early introduction (by interspersion) of 'transposition skills' can be justified on grounds other than diagnostic value. It is important, that is, that students do not get the (mistaken) impression that the language skills they are practising have little or nothing directly to do with interpreting; after all, that is what they are following the course to find out about. On the other hand, though, too premature an introduction to such exercises might easily have a demoralising effect. Finding the correct balance - if one likes, finding the length in each particular case of the double-headed arrow in the diagram above - is, as always, the responsibility of the individual teacher.

3. Needs Analysis

Largely, though not exclusively, on the basis of the foregoing, the following are suggested as the paramount needs of students considering full-time training as conference interpreters. The word 'paramount' should be underlined; the list makes no claim at all to exhaustiveness. Nor does it claim to be a reliable list of the paramount needs of practising conference interpreters; the needs of apprentices and mastercraftsmen are not necessarily identical, though they must, by definition, overlap at certain crucial points. The following is, then, to repeat, a list of the needs which the future student interpreter might plausibly be asked to take seriously:

1. An ability to talk fluently and clearly in ones mother tongue, often on subjects one knows little or perhaps even nothing about.
2. Physical fitness.
3. At least two 'passive' languages.
4. A sense of both 'text' and 'discourse', 'cohesion' and 'coherence' (terms to be defined) in both the two source languages and in ones mother tongue.
5. An awareness of speeds, registers, and accents in the source languages, and an ability to call on similar resources (except accent, of course) in ones mother tongue.
6. An ability to switch from the aural to the visual mode in order to 'sight-translate' (term to be defined).
7. An ability to remain cool and accurate when technical subject matter makes exceptional claims on exactitude.

We said above that these needs were not only 'detailed' but 'graded'. 'Graded' should not, however, be taken to mean that '2' represents a greater absolute need than '3', or '4' than '6'. This would be absurd, particularly in the case of '2'. The sense of 'graded' here is better understood as 'pedagogically sequenced', or more accurately 'arranged' (since we have already seen above, in the discussion of 'interspersion', that '5' and '6' will not await termination of '3' and '4'). There is probably some sense in which the needs differ intrinsically in their immediate urgency - '3' being an obvious example here -, but we are more concerned with the practical than the theoretical exigencies of assigning 'importance'. Any number of the needs might anyway not apply in particular cases, and in any number of particular cases we might not feel obliged (or able) to answer a need which has been accurately specified. Contingencies such as available resources and available time will always play havoc with pedagogical neatness.

The sense of 'graded', then, is the sense referred to in the previous section, the sense which allows us to identify types rather than instances of skills. In terms of the three sub-skills described above, we can therefore retain our numbering for the identified needs, and group those needs according to sub-skill type:

transfer skills	1. mother tongue fluency
	2. physical fitness
transformation skills	3. two 'passive' languages
	4. 'feature' study of 'passive' languages and mother tongue. (see point 4 on previous page for sense of 'feature' study).
	5. speed, register, accent in the 'passive' languages, and control of the two former in the mother tongue.

transposition skills

6. 'sight-translation'

7. imperturbability in the face of technical or obscure subject-matter in the source languages.

In what follows, exercises will be suggested in relation to each specified need within the three sub-skill types. This should not be taken to suggest that a one-one relation between language need and language exercise is a goal that should generally and permanently be strived for. Such a procedure could in fact lead to an unwanted rigidity in the overall course design. It could also encourage an 'imagining' of needs that do not really exist, in rather the same way that work often expands to fill the time available for it. The one-one relation of needs to exercises is adopted here for reasons mainly of expositional clarity. It is intended to stimulate thought rather than definitely prescribe action on the part of the teacher.

Needs-Related Exercises

Transfer Skills ('1' and '2')

'1' Mother-tongue fluency

We are dealing here with use of what has been called a non-verbal device in order to practise mother tongue fluency. Our diagram on page 66 parenthetically suggested that candidate non-verbal devices mights be maps, X-rays, or pictures. There is little need to go over this, as it has already been outlined. Student A (speaking, say, from a map) attempts, for example, to describe the exact location of a particular landmark; students B to Z meanwhile attempt to redraw the map from which student A is 'reading'. There should be a time-limit (say two minutes) set for student A's description.

As the course progresses (and, as implied above, we are assuming a duration of one academic year, with perhaps one or two weekly meetings), it would be both advisable and useful - if 'transfer' exercises are maintained - to gradually 'technify' the nature of the non-verbal devices used. A wiring diagram would clearly be extraordinarily difficult to describe, as would an X-ray, but the kinds of illustration common in car-repair manuals, for example could easily be used. By increasing the technical specificity of the non-verbal devices, a 'forward' link could be established to what we have set as need '7' within the 'transposition' skills sub-type:- the need to remain cool when data become technical. If 'transfer' exercises are maintained right through the course (it might prove hard to accommodate this in terms of time), need '7' ('technical' sang froid) and need '1' (mother tongue fluency) could be married towards the end of the course in one single exercise. This does, though, assume a multilingual composition for the class, since if 'transfer' and 'transposition' are to become one exercise type, student A (speaking in his mother tongue) must clearly be using a language different from the mother tongues of the majority of his listeners, students B to Z.

In fact, like any other activity deemed to be of aid to future interpreting students, this exercise will seem less trivial or irrelevant if the class is anyway relatively multilingual in composition. Given a multilingual composition, clearly at least some of the students will be 'transferring' from the medium of a 'passive' language. However, the exercise loses weight but <u>not</u> point if the class is monolingual. It simply means that the role of the 'retransferer' is somewhat easier to play. The role of the 'transferrer', the speaker, and his need to be accurate, fluent, and concise, remain, of course, the same.

'2' Physical fitness

There is no space here to discuss this potentially controversial topic in detail. Suffice it to say that, without raising the moral spectre of the 'sound in body, sound in mind' addage, it must surely be admitted that mental agility - a prime quality for good interpreters - might conceivably be enhanced by agility of the body.

Transformation Skills ('3', '4' and '5')

'3' Two 'passive' languages

When we first introduced the term 'passive' language (pp.65) explaining its technical reference, we said that whatever knowledge of this language was going to be useful to a future interpreting student would have to be taught 'actively'. We also talked in terms of a general macro-skill of 'listening'. Thus, the need here relates to accustoming the student to active and 'participatory' listening to a foreign language (here English). The kind of language used to effect this participation need in the beginning display no special characteristics,nor need it contain any hidden difficulties or subtleties, since the emphasis will be on increasing what psychologists call the 'channel capacity' of the students. The aim will be to develop both the student's listening skill, and his recall capacity. As exercise a), the following is proposed, spoken at normal speed:

a) tapescript:

" First of all: the assertion that we 'lost an empire' is misleading. It is of course true that the Empire - or at least the larger part of it - has changed to something quite different. It is no longer an empire in the original sense of the word - yet it is quite definite that it is not

...t. If you like, the Empire has grown up and become the Commonwealth. And for us the Commonwealth is no empty phrase, but represents a living reality. We are bound to this community in many ways. We grant economic aid to many Commonwealth countries, with others we have military agreements. And take some of our commitments in the Near East. It benefits not only England if we save the Near East from chaos: our military presence in this area serves not only British interests, but also those of all countries which need oil."

(from an interview with Michael Stewart, Foreign Secretary, 1965. Quoted in Spiegelgesprache, P.51)

What one could ask the student to do, after having listened to this, is to put himself in the position of Michael Stewart and answer a question such as "how do you think Britain has reacted to her loss of Empire?" A less autocratic way of conducting this exercise would perhaps be to have all the other students stage a press-conference and take turns in asking the student elected to 'be' Michael Stewart similar questions to the one quoted above. After the elected student had answered these questions, one could then play the tape again, ask the student to listen again, and tell him at the end that he, in the role of M. Stewart, had received an urgent message from an ambassador or diplomat somewhere in the world requesting an immediate statement from the Foreign Secretary on the government's position regarding Britain's role in the Commonwealth and the Near East. The reply is to be sent off by telegram; the student would then try to draft the telegram, making clear the government's position.

At this point, i.e. after what can broadly be termed a listening comprehension exercise with role-simulation as checking procedure, an opportunity arises for the 'interspersion' of an introductory 'transposition' exercise. As said before, such interspersion of transposition with transformation skills should become a regular, if carefully controlled, feature of the course.

We have said before that a key factor of transposition skills was the 'attention-sharing capacity' they demand of the learner. Thus, after the first, pure, listening exercise (a), where no attempt was made to relate to the activity of interpreting, the exercise described below (b) aims to introduce extraneous noise to distract (and in the end hopefully no longer to distract) the listener from his task.

When he begins simultaneous interpreting, the interpreter's greatest distraction will be the sound of his own voice. There may also, though, be further acoustic intrusions into what he is hearing, such as electronic interference over the headphones, a loud-speaking interpreter in the neighbouring booth, a speaker who is continually clearing his throat, etc. In consecutive interpreting, seated around a table, there will probably be whispers, messages being passed, chairs being scraped, cigarettes being lit, etc. Introducing the student to these further sporadic acoustic intrusions some good time before he has begun to face the regular hurdle of continuous distraction by the sound of his own voice (i.e. before his formal training has started) would be one way in which his attention-sharing capacity could be increased and developed. Moreover, as an aside, such exercises are further motivated by two unconnected pieces of research: Gerver (1974) has found that:

> "levels of noise which would not necessarily impair perception of speech by simultaneous conference interpreters COULD (his italics)

interfere with the processes involved in retrieval and transformation of the message being interpreted" (p.160)

and Johannsson (1971) reports that

" the 'noise-test', in use for evaluating listening comprehension aptitude at Lund University, Sweden, since 1969, can be recommended for categories of students who will normally experience language situations where the signal is strongly reduced (eg, radio-operators, interpreters, secretaries)." (p.127)

Thus, for this second exercise (b) I envisage similar passages to the Michael Stewart interview being played to the students, but this time

b) i) with a simultaneous interpretation into another, wholly unfamiliar language overlaid on the tape, but recorded at a very low volume. (simulation of loud speaker in neighbouring booth situation)

ii) With a simultaneous interpretation into another language known to the students, (their second passive language) overlaid, again at a low volume (same simulation)

iii) with unexpected noise intrusions at different volumes, such as chair-scraping, sneezing, laughter, etc.

After each passage, during which the students would not have been performing any other overt task apart from listening (ie not note-taking, not interpreting), the activities from exercise a) could be repeated; that is, one could ask for

i) an oral summary of all that is remembered

ii) a telegraphic summary to be written under pressure of time

iii) an oral redelivery from the telegram, this time in normal non-telegraphic discourse.

One would not be paying particular attention in this exercise to the form in which the telegram was worded or noted on the student's sheet of paper, since a) he will probably be doing this writing in his mother-tongue, and

b) note-taking itself is a skill which a pre-session course would do better to leave the student interpreter's later full-time instructors.

Still under the rubric 'transformation skills' (sub-skill 2) we move on to need '4', 'feature' study of both passive and active languages. The terms 'text' and 'discourse' and 'cohesion' and 'coherence' were mentioned in this regard. In fact, the two sets of terms are mutually defining, as the following from Allen and Widdowson (1978) makes clear: talking of the design of tertiary-level, specific-purpose English language courses, they write:

> " One might usefully distinguish two kinds of ability which an English course at this level should aim at developing. The first is the ability to recognise how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication, the ability to understand the rhetorical functioning of language in use. The second is the ability to recognise and manipulate the formal devices which are used to combine sentences to create continuous passages of prose. We might say that the first has to do with the rhetorical coherence of discourse, and the second with the grammatical cohesion of text. In practice, of course, one kind of ability merges with the other. (p.58)

As a cohesion-knowledge exercise, we might, then, concern ourselves with the student's ability to recognise connectives in

oral speech, from the obvious and virtually unmissable "however" and "nevertheless" to the rather less salient and easily missable "but", "yet", "still", and "so". We might also concern ourselves with the student's ability to disambiguate individual sentences as they proceed, and, as a result of this syntactic and semantic disambiguation, his ability to predict the grammatical and lexical outcome of some given sentences. Two simple examples of such exercises will be given below, (c) and (d). As a coherence-knowledge exercise, we shall suggest the activity of 'paragraph-guessing'. (e) We begin, then, with (c)

c) With regard to this, it can be said that the mere acoustic capture and singling out of such connectives as 'so', 'but', and 'yet' from sentences and groups of sentences that are proceeding at some speed, is an achievement in itself for the foreign learner of English. This is because in spoken English they generally occur in their unmarked form unless special emphasis is to be given them, and the unmarked 'but', for example, is acoustically a long way from the marked 'but'. Even from the clearest of English speakers, all that one might sometimes capture of an unmarked 'but' in fast speech would be a fairly soft 't' at the end of the word, and all that one might catch of an unmarked 'so' (as logical connector) from the same speaker would be the hiss of the initial 's'.

Our exercise, then, will consist of the students listening to some recorded passages of English and simply noting the connectives (and nothing else) on a sheet of paper as they occur. The instructions given to the students would be to note down what words appeared to connect the ideas. He would

not be told to look out for certain words. It is of course assumed that the actual lexical items in question are not new territory to the students. The actual 'schema' of 'buts' and 'stills' and 'sos' could then be used, if one likes, as what could reasonably be called a 'semi-verbal device' from which the students might be asked to recall as much as they could of the message.

Now d). Syntactic and semantic disambiguation

With regard to this, we are concerned with an activity, which, while of considerable linguistic interest and use in itself, can also be seen as an indirect preparation for simultaneous interpreting. That is, one point of the exercise could be to identify (or rather learn to identify) the optimal moment of beginning the simultaneous interpretation of a sentence. This in turn relates to what Paneth (1957), in an extremely interesting study, calls "determining the overlap", ie. the amount of 'lag' a simultaneous interpreter will allow himself behind the speech of the original. Our exercise, then, would be on the following model: semi-sentences such as:

a) the chairman's going to ... (+ locative noun-phrase/ + verbal infinitive/ + adverbial if 'to' is INCORRECTLY perceived as the non-homophonous 'too' ?)

b) the chairman's ... (+ possessive noun phrase/ + verbal participle ?)

c) They think it's going to ... (+ verbal infinitive/ + locative noun phrase ?)

d) It's going ... (+ 'to'/ + adverbial ?)

e) The Prime Minister has been.. ('to'/ + 'in'/ + verbal participle + adverbial ?)

f) The President is expected... (+ 'to'/ + 'in'/ + negative ?)

are presented orally, live or taped, and students are asked to complete them in as many ways as they think are appropriate and grammatically feasible. They are then asked to say where they think they could begin interpreting if they were hearing the sentences for the first time. It is relatively clear that in the examples quoted above, the syntactic/semantic information is insufficient to allow interpreting to begin; that is, the grammatical and lexical possibilities for the continuation of these semi-sentences are too great. Less incomplete semi-sentences such as

> the chairman of the All-American Basketball Association which is greatly in debt to the National Sports Federation left Boston yesterday refraining, however, from answering any questions put to him by reporters who .....

provide a greater challenge for analysis and prediction, and the question of where to begin interpreting is much more open. This question could be discussed by the class in terms of narrowed prediction possibilities, as in the above, much shorter semi-sentences. However, the point will not be to 'discover' a sole, optimal point for beginning interpreting and then adhere to it dogmatically, it will

be to encourage the students to think more closely about the syntactic and semantic potential of their 'passive' languages.

Similar semi-sentences with semantically ambiguous items such as 'bill', 'right', 'party' and 'leave' can easily be imagined, and the same disambiguation procedure followed.

We now move on to the third activity (e) suggested on p.79 as relevant in general to 'transformation skills' and relevant in particular to knowledge of 'coherence' in both passive and active languages. It will be recalled that the two activities just outlined, (c) and (d), were said to relate to 'textual' and therefore 'cohesive' features of the language. The feature of 'coherence' was said to relate to the rhetorical, rather than the textual organisation of speech. One way in which writers mark this organisation is in terms of paragraphs.

For written language, a distinction is sometimes drawn between 'physical' and 'conceptual' paragraphs. (cf.Lackstrom 1973) It is pointed out that the two need by no means coincide. In oral speech we are concerned exclusively with 'conceptual' paragraphs; that is, we as participatory listeners have to draw our own 'paragraph' boundaries. Of course, we are usually helped in this by our interlocuters, who signal their intentions phonetically, through pauses and intonation features, and paralinguistically, by body- and eye-movements. With reduced signal (due, perhaps, to noise) and often complete lack of visual contact, the simultaneous interpreter has no such props to help him recapture (and transpose) the rhetorical

organisation of the speech he is listening to. He must follow the ideas, not the words, to be sure, but in order to be able to do this he must see where and how one idea (or set of ideas) shades off into another. To practise this skill, it is suggested

e) that excerpts from speeches are read out to the class in one of the passive languages, and with varying degrees of expressive intonation. The speech should not be unduly hurried, but the pauses should be 'unnaturally' regular or even. That is, no 'paragraph' indications should be supplied phonetically. The students are simply asked to interrupt the speech when they believe a 'conceptual paragraph' has been terminated and a new one begun. It is important at the end of this exercise for the speech to be redelivered orally by one or a number of the students using normally expressive intonation and pause features; this could then be both a checking procedure (for the teacher) and a practice procedure (for the students). For this purpose, a transcript of the speech without paragraph markings would obviously be necessary.

Again still under the rubric of 'transformation skills' (sub-skill 2), we move on to our last specified need in this domain, the one we numbered as '5' (see p.71)

'5' An awareness of speeds, registers, and accents in the source languages, and an ability to call on parallel resources in the mother tongue.

We shall consider speed, register, and accent in that order.

i) speed:

Speed should be taken to refer to both the productive and the receptive skills which the conference interpreter must possess. That is, not only must he be able to assimilate (and transpose) incoming speech which varies in speed, he must also be able to control and vary the speed of his own output. He must be able to do this for two reasons which Paneth (1957) perceptively points out:

a) because controlling ones speed (for example speeding up during speaker-pauses so as to 'reduce the overlap') allows one to save energy and nerves; and

b) because there is a great, almost irresistible urge to fall in with the rhythm and the word-group/pause relations set up by the speaker, and this urge, if followed, can lead one to a slavish, "am Wort kleben" attitude which most interpreters agree is fatal for fluency.

The interpreter must control the speed of his own output, then, and full-time training courses will doubtless pay attention to this; a pre-session course, though, could easily practise such conscious control without the added difficulty of an incoming message in a 'passive' language to be interpreted.

A text could be read out by the teacher in a student's active language (ie mother tongue). Only one student and the teacher would be present at this point. The reading would be timed to the second. (suggested length: two minutes) The student would then attempt to read the same passage within a shorter time to the rest of his co-students, who by now would have joined the proceedings. His co-students would be asked to inform him if his speech lost coherence due to

to disfluencies occasioned by over-haste. The procedure could then be repeated around the class.

It is important that the non-performing students do not hear the speech twice (ie. once by the teacher, and once by the student), so they would either be asked to put on headphones - if these are available - or to leave the room for the relevant two minutes.

ii) register:

It is essential for an interpreter to be able to recognise different registers of language so that he can transpose them accurately and appropriately into his mother tongue. Some preparatory analytical exercises to lay foundations for this could be:

a) to compare the broadcasts from Parliament (now tapeable from the radio) with a fair sample of tape-recordings from Speakers' Corner in Hyde Park.

b) to compare articles dealing with the same subject or news items in, say, The Guardian, The Daily Mail, and The Daily Mirror.

c) to compare passages of a 'literary' nature: here the excellent translation by Barbara Wright of Queneau's Exercises de Style would be invaluable.

Talk, as usual, would be in the mother tongue; only in this way could equivalences from English to the 'active' culture be pinpointed.

iii) accent:

Tapes of speeches or radio broadcasts made by politicians using Standard English as well as the major regional dialects and accents should be made available to the

student. Indeed they should be used consistently in classes practising any of the three sub-skills we have delineated. Moreover, they should be presented not as if they were something 'special', containing inherent difficulty, but introduced naturally, perhaps as the basis for exercises of the pure listening type

It should be possible to obtain tapes from the BBC, for example, of speakers whose accents range through R.P., mild Yorkshire, Scottish, etc. As noted above, the exercises would be pure listening and oral recall, without notes.

We have now completed the suggestions for exercises to practise 'transformation skills' (sub-skill 2), and we move on to the third and last of the sub-skills, that of 'transposition' (sub-skill 3). We are therefore dealing with needs '6' and '7', as listed on page 70.

Transposition Skills ('6' and '7')

'6' An ability to switch from aural to visual mode and 'sight-translate'.

An interpreter may occasionally find that amongst the documents of a conference which he normally receives are copies of the speeches which are to be made. This is a comparatively rare occurrence, but when it happens the interpreter is expected to 'sight-translate' the speech as it goes along. Some exercises in reading, more precisely in sight-translation, will therefore form part of a full-time training course. As has already been suggested above, though, In a pre-session course of

this nature the greatest importance of such exercises is their diagnostic value.

Passages of English for immediate, 'unseen' translation into the student's mother tongue will therefore be presented at various intervals during the course. Predictably, there will be very many stoppages, hesitations, and corrections in the student's delivery. The alert teacher will see at what point exactly such difficulties occur, and will 'diagnose' accordingly. If the stoppages appear to be occurring because of syntactic difficulty, ie the syntactic structure of the sentence is not being assimilated as the eye runs along and ahead of the sentence on the page, then this may indicate that the student should pay more attention to disambiguation and prediction exercises. If, however, the disfluences in translation seem to occur because of a search for lexical equivalents, this is much more serious, and the student should perhaps be encouraged to pay more attention to paraphrase or synonym exercises. It might also indicate a more radical unsuitability for the whole enterprise of interpreting, the counters of which are ideas and not lexical items.

'7' An ability to remain cool when technical subject matter makes exceptional claims on exactitude.

Here we are on the thinnest ice with our exercises because the unknowns and variables are so great. Some students will have more scientific background than others, some might have a phobia about mathematics and 'figures', some will consider that technical language and specifications form an impenetrable meta-language which has been sent specifically to blight them.

As a prelude to exposure to concentrated chunks of technical language and jargon (something students will certainly have to contend with if they opt for full-time training), the following exercises are proposed; they centre around figures, and to a lesser degree around terminology.

1) figures

Exercise to distinguish between 'teens' and 'tens'. ie. 'thirteen' and 'thirty')

Sentences on the following lines are spoken. The student simply writes the figures which eblong to each sentence:

a) A thirty per cent loss was registered by the Central Credit Bank.

b) A hundred and fifteen men lost their lives at sea last year.

c) A sixteen mile fishing zone has been drawn up around Malta.

d) This car only does fourteen miles to the gallon.

etc.etc.

It is important that figure-practice, which generally forms some part of an interpreter's course, should not take place out of context. By that we mean that lists of unrelated figures and dates should not, as a rule, be read out at lightning speed for transcription, as is sometimes the case. Apart from the 'unreal', decontextualised nature of such an exercise, there are sound linguistic reasons for not doing so, in English at least. This is because the intonation-contour, for example, on the word 'thirteen' will surely change according to whether it is used intra-sententially or in isolation, and the stress and the

intonation are, after all, virtually all that one has to distinguish it from the word 'thirty'. Since figures, when spoken, normally occur within sentences, it would be as well to accustom students to the most frequent stress and intonation patterns which accompany their pronunciation. However, since lists of figures do also occur with relative frequency in speeches of a socio-economic nature, it would be wise to practise transcribing isolated lists of figures too.

ii) terminology

One exercise that could be useful here would be to familiarise students with the commonest Latin and Greek prefixes and suffixes in English, since these tend to occur with great frequency in scientific terminology. Thus a knowledge of the semantic value held by common Greek prefixes such as 'tele' or 'kin' could enable the student to concentrate on other aspects of the sentence he is hearing.

This exercise is almost infantile in its conceptual simplicity, and it does perhaps run the risk of becoming boring or tedious in its execution, but it could be of great value, particularly to those with no Latin or Greek at all in their previous education.

A list is started on the following lines:

Latin	Greek
pre -	tele -
post -	neuro -
super -	geo -
intra -	poly -

Students are asked to complete it, and helped to do so. For each item added, at least three words having that item as

a prefix should be thought of. If the item happens to be a Latin prefix, a common search around the class is initiated to discover whether a corresponding Greek prefix exists and is used in English.

The lists should be completed at least to the following degree :

inter -	kin -
sub -	hyper -
a -	dis -
de -	ambi -
extra -	homo -
in -	hydro -
aqua -	macro -
alter -	micro -
ultra -	neo -

This accounts for at least some of the relatively common ones. The exercise should be made progressively more technical (in the sense that the prefixes become that much less common) as students' knowledge and assurance increase.

Conclusion

In the previous section we enumerated a number of practical suggestions for language-learning exercises which the pre-session student interpreter might usefully be helped to undertake. The exercises were related to seven 'needs' which we said the would-be student interpreter should have had answered before he is truly in a position to 'opt' for the interpreting rather than the translating branch of foreign language study at a recognised, European, university-

affiliated 'Dolmetscherschule'.

We claimed that one way of looking at and hopefully meeting those needs was to break down the terminal skill - consecutive and simultaneous interpreting - into specified linguistic sub-skills.

We certainly did (and do) not claim that either the sub-skills or indeed the 'needs' themselves are in any way exhaustive or even optimally representative of what a practising conference interpreter actually does. We said, rather, that they might form a pedagogically useful window through which to look in at the pre-session requirements of undergraduates learning English with an eye to either translating or interpreting. We also said that a course based on such an analysis might enable such a choice to be made on a more informed and realistic basis.

In conclusion, it is hoped that some of the suggestions contained in the above pages may be of use to interested teachers and/or interpreters in the relevant institutions in Europe and elsewhere.

ON DESIGNING A SYLLABUS FOR AN EST COURSE

Juan de la Cruz Rojas

0. Introduction

ESP courses at university level are usually besieged by instability and insecurity. The effects of this situation are evidenced by the fact that these courses represent the obvious candidates for suppression or reduction in the number of hours whenever reforms of the curriculum are carried out. On some other occasions, what is questioned is not the existence of the courses themselves, but their objectives, the methodology or the materials, thus casting doubts upon the professional efficiency of those who developed the course. From this point of view, language teaching, like some other aspects of everyday life, seems to be one of those issues about which almost everybody feels that he has something to comment or criticise. Under these circumstances, ESP teachers need to be fully aware of the dimension of their task and act accordingly if the courses are to survive.

It was in a situation like the one depicted above that the ESP program at the Universidad del Valle, Cali, Colombia, began about two years ago. Until that time, all our courses relied on the assumption that what distinguishes scientific-technical English from general English is the presence of certain grammatical structures together with certain lexical items. As a consequence of this, instead of attempting to develop a general and unified material, we tried to prepare a different type of material for almost every one of the fields of study in which our students were enrolled. This, obviously, led to a multiplication of the teachers work and eventually to a waste of time and efforts. Our present ESP program is aimed at correcting this situation through the development of a single general syllabus and the preparation of a small set of materials for each one of the levels contemplated in most careers. As far as the development of the whole program is concerned, both the

syllabuses and the materials for the first two levels have been completed. Work on the third level has not gone beyond the specification of the general aims of the course as outlined in the general ESP program.

The purpose of the present paper is to suggest an outline syllabus for the third level course, and to provide some general indications as to the type of materials and exercises that could be used when developing the course. The degree of specification of this syllabus would not probably be as high as that for the first two levels. It seems to me that the higher the degree of complexity of a reading passage, the more difficult it would be to specify its communicative potential and the formal structures used to express it. Although discourse analysis has contributed a great deal towards an understanding of the cohesive devices that link the different parts of a passage together, it is quite probable that inter-paragraph relationships need to be handled in a different way. I would like to suggest that when dealing with complex passages, the relationships between their different components cannot be captured in terms of simple grammatical structure but only in terms of the different communicative events within the text, and the different relationships that hold between them. It is for this reason that the syllabus to be proposed in this paper will be specified on the basis of semantic content rather than in terms of grammatical structure.

Throughout this discussion different aspects pertaining to the general field of ESP will be dealt with; from this point of view, the general outline of the syllabus and the conclusions that can be derived from it would probably be relevant not only to our particular case but also to other cases wherever a similar situation arises.

1.0. ESP Defined

Strevens (1977) distinguishes between SP-LT (Special-Purpose Language Teaching), ESP (English for Special Purposes) and EST (English for Science and Technology). SP-LT, says Strevens, 'occurs whenever the content and aim of the teaching are determined by requirements of the learner rather than by external factors such as general educational criteria.' ESP and EST are then particular instances of SP-LT, the former being less specific than the latter.

As Strevens points out, a basic characteristic of all these courses is that they are restricted in many ways. The restrictions may arise from the audience for whom the courses are intended, the type of skill selected as target for the course, the content of the materials or the particular purpose for which the language is taught. This poses a difficulty for defining ESP since these restrictions do not apply equally well to all situations; thus while in a particular case what is restricted is the audience, not the type of skill being practised, in another case the situation might well be the other way around: a heterogeneous audience but a restricted set of skills or even a single skill. This, Strevens points out, makes it even more difficult to differentiate what is 'general' from what is 'special'. One way out of this problem would be to provide two general types of definition for ESP, one singular and one plural (Noss and Rodgers, 1976). As the authors state, ESP singular 'assumes a restricted corpus selected from the totality of the English language with a particular group of learners in mind. The basis for selecting such corpus must be its assumed frequency of use in a particular academic, vocational or other specialised field.' Compared with this, ESP plural 'can be no more than an aggregate of such restricted corpora as designated by the term ESP (singular).'

In spite of the vagueness and circularity of these definitions, they serve at least to make us aware of the impossibility of providing a general definition suitable for most situations. It would then be preferable to provide specific definitions for the different cases which we come across.

2.0. ESP in the Universidad del Valle

Our ESP courses are particular instances of EST whose main objective is the teaching of reading comprehension in order to provide the student with a tool that he can use in furthering his scientific-technical knowledge in the areas of his speciality.

2.1 General Aspects of the Courses

2.1.1. Language Learning Situation

English is taught as a foreign language more for academic purposes than for occupational ones. The language of instruction is Spanish even when answering questions or following instructions given in English. Two main reasons could be invoked in support of the use of the native language in the classroom; firstly, since our main concern is reading comprehension, we are inclined to believe that as long as the student can understand and report on what he has read there is no problem if the answers are given in the native language. Secondly, lack of a good command in the audio-oral aspects of the target language would hinder the use of the foreign language as the means of instruction.

2.1.2. Time Allotment, Size of Groups and Type of Materials

a. Number of semesters: Three with an average of fifteen weeks of classes per semester.[1]

1. The fourth level course, contemplated in the general ESP program, is compulsory only for the students of two careers.

b. Hours per week: Five

c. Number of students per group: About forty

d. Materials: Prepared at the university

One question may well arise in relation to the preparation of materials for courses like these: given the fact that a variety of ESP materials are already in circulation, why bother to try and develop materials which, at least initially, would probably have a lower level of achievement than those materials already on the market?

It seems to me that in a situation like this, materials preparation could be justified on two different counts.

First of all, as far as the area of ESP is concerned, the situation changes from one institution to another and, as a consequence of this, materials developed with a specific learning situation in mind, may turn out to be unsuitable to another situation. This is, in my opinion, one of the big problems for the development of ESP materials for large audiences. To the best of my knowledge, there are not two universities in Colombia whose ESP programs can be compared. Differences in time allotment, aims of the courses, and so on, make the situation different from one institution to another; even within the same institution the situation may change from one year to another due to the great vulnerability of these courses. What is at issue is probably not the quality of the materials themselves but how they 'fit' a particular situation. Under these circumstances, there seem to be three possible alternative solutions that could cater for the inadequacy of the materials. One possible way out would be to change the learning situation in order to make room for the materials, this, however, is not always possible if we consider the different sorts of constraints to which ESP courses are subjected. Another solution

would be to 'adapt' already existing material by removing from it what is not relevant for our particular purposes; again, this alternative also poses some difficulties since adaptation usually implies mutilation, or the use of the material for purposes other than those for which it is intended. In other words, materials are developed as organic entities with well-defined objectives and with a set of strategies and exercises intended to fulfil those objectives. However, when the materials are used for different purposes, or when they are used partially, the inescapable result would be an underutilisation of the material or even a hybrid made up of isolated parts of different materials pieced together. Obviously, this does not do any justice to the materials, and it might eventually lead to the conclusion that the materials are ineffective, without acknowledging the fact that they have been improperly used. Finally, we are left with what seems to be a promising solution. To develop one's own materials. Materials preparation thus makes it possible to work within the existing conditions, and to take advantage of any feedback that can be derived from this process. Under 'ideal' working conditions, materials preparation should provide the teachers with the opportunity of keeping abreast of new developments in the area of language teaching.

The second reason for developing materials is that it stimulates team work, thus providing the teachers with the opportunity to reflect upon their own work, review their teaching practices, discuss theoretical issues and, in general, update their knowledge of the field which, otherwise, runs the risk of fossilisation. For many language teachers, materials preparation represents the only kind of intellectual production throughout the exercise of their profession; that is why materials

preparation is a highly rewarding activity from almost every angle from which we look at it. The problem, however, is that the importance of this effort is not always acknowledged by the university authorities who are in charge of assessing the teachers' work.

2.1.3. The Audience

Our ESP courses are directed at undergraduates who are doing their first, second or third semester of study in any of the different professional fields offered by the university. Although these students have followed English courses throughout their secondary school studies - six academic years with three classes per week on the average - their level of proficiency in English is usually very low. The reason for this is that most secondary school English teachers faithfully follow the syllabus of the Ministry of Education or the textbooks that supposedly develop that syllabus. This should present no problem if the aims of the syllabus were not as ambiguous as they are. Thus, instead of advising the development of what seems to be the most relevant priority for Colombian students - reading comprehension - the syllabus emphasises the teaching of the four language skills with the resulting effect that the student learns only isolated bits of the language without developing a fairly good command of any of the skills. To make matters even worse, the teaching of reading in the native language is more concerned with grammatical explanations than with the actual process of reading comprehension.

2.1.4. Students' Needs and General Aims of ESP Courses

Given the characteristics of our educational situation and of the language learning situation in particular, we have selected reading comprehension as the most relevant priority, thus leaving out listening

and speaking, and paying only marginal attention to writing. This, obviously, severely limits the scope of our courses but it is, perhaps, the only way to achieve a result which, otherwise, would be unattainable. Our courses are thus restricted in more than one sense: they attempt to develop only one skill; the reading material is of the EST kind; and the aims of the courses are mainly academic.

2.1.5. Syllabus Outline and Types of Courses

The two syllabuses so far designed - levels I and II - are of the functional/notional type (Wilkins, 1976); we have chosen this orientation for our courses in the belief that it provides the most adequate solution for courses which are heavily restricted as in our particular case.

The general content of the four courses contemplated in our ESP program can be stated as follows:

Level I deals with basic concepts (quantity, properties, etc) found in scientific discourse. Two different types of materials, one for natural sciences and another for social sciences, are contemplated.

Level II is concerned with communicative purposes (definitions, generalisations, etc.) found in scientific discourse. Three types of materials are contemplated in the general syllabus: Physical Sciences, Biological Science and Social Sciences.

Level III will deal with rhetorical mixtures, that is, with texts in which different scientific concepts and communicative purposes are interrelated. It is assumed that, as in the case of the second level, three different types of materials would be developed.

Level IV will be concerned with listening comprehension, that is, with samples of spoken scientific English - lectures, films, etc. The aims of this level probably need some clarification. As I mentioned before, the first three levels do not, at present, contemplate the inclusion of the audio-oral aspects of the language. Nevertheless, if the aims of the fourth level are to be maintained it would then be necessary to incorporate some aspects of spoken English in the first three levels.

The general aims for each one of the levels can be defined in behavioural terms as follows:[2]

First level: To understand basic semantic notions centered around essential concepts used in science and technology - time and space, comparison, probability, cause and effect, hypothesis, etc; these notions will be presented taking discourse as the point of departure and taking into consideration the different grammatical structures used to express those notions.

Second level: To analyse scientific discourse from the point of view of the writer's communicative purpose. Different rhetorical functions - definitions, description, classifications, etc. - commonly found in scientific discourse will be identified together with the grammatical forms used to express them. It is expectad that the student will be able to identify and interpret the functions and the different structural elements next; these items must be identified not as isolated elements but as formal devices which lend cohesion and coherence to the text and contribute to make it meaningful.

Third level: The student will be able to understand complex texts of his speciality in which different communicative events are interwoven in complex linguistic networks. Communicative functions will take precedence over grammatical functions. Grammatical aspects will be dealt with to the extent that they may be relevant to the expression of a particular function.

Fourth level: The student will be able to understand spoken English, particularly in lectures, classes and films. The student will be

2. Translated and adapted from Plan de Desarrollo del Area de Ingles de Servicios, mimeo, Universidad del Valle, Calli,Col., 1978.

trained in note-taking techniques, reconstruction of spoken paragraphs on the basis of notes, summarising texts and, eventually, in argumentation techniques which allow him to participate in academic discussions in the foreign language.

Now, in order to see how English III fits into the previous set of courses, let us take a brief look at the first two levels.

English I has two general aims: Firstly, to introduce the students to the field of reading comprehension in EST and secondly, to fill a foreign language gap between the secondary school and the university. As a consequence of this, the course deals both with scientific concepts and notions and with grammatical aspects, particularly those used to express those notions. The student is then trained to identify the basic concepts used in science and technology and associate with them particular grammatical structures. Writing when used, is an adjunct of reading, a way of backing up reading comprehension. Two types of materials, one for natural sciences another for social sciences, are contemplated for this level. Since in principle the syllabus is basically the same, the question arises whether the types of sciences share the same concepts, and, if so, then to what extent. The answer to this question will probably have to wait until more research has been carried out. For the time being, we will assume that the same kind of general approach can be used no matter what scientific field we are dealing with.

English II pays more attention to the communicative aspects of the language than to its formal structure. Thus while English I could be regarded as an intermediate stage between the teaching of reading comprehension and a survey of grammatical structures, English II, on the contrary, takes up the semantic aspects of the language as the main target paying only marginal attention to its formal aspects. The general aim of the course

is, then, to train the student in the identification of the communicative purpose or purposes of a paragraph and to associate them with the corresponding grammatical structures.[3] Standard physical paragraphs usually convey a single communicative function (definition, classification, etc); however, this is not always the norm because one purpose may be interconnected with others thus leading to more and more complex paragraphs. Definitions, for example, are usually followed by a description, classification, or expansion of the concept being defined. For practical purposes, however, it is assumed that there is a central purpose per paragraph, and it is in accordance with this criterion that the different units have been organised.

English III will deal with complex texts in which different communicative purposes are interconnected. In comparison with the first two levels, English III will be most directly concerned with the reading process itself. It seems to me that after the student has gone through the first two levels, it would be very difficult for material developers to come up with exercises which are at the same time new and attractive to the student. Under these circumstances, English III would probably be more interesting if instead of spending the time solving exercises, the attention is focused on what goes on when reading in a foreign language.

3. In the syllabuses for our first two levels and in this paper the expression 'communicative functions' and 'communicative events' are used rather loosely, the reason for this being that in some cases it is quite difficult to define a given concept or distinguish it from another. It is perhaps worth noting that even in the objective and, apparently, well-defined field of scientific concepts, there seem to exist borderline cases which blur the distinction between one function and another. Descriptive linguistics would probably be of little help since identification of the function must come before linguistic labeling.

In other words, the course should be aimed at developing in the student the ability to 'negotiate meaning', that is, to grasp the meaning of the text through an interactive process in which different types of information - known, implied or anticipated information - come together. It is only through a process like this that the response to the text will be 'authentic' (Widdowson, 1976).

In general terms, courses I-III are reading-only courses based on the use of reading selections taken from textbooks and technical-scientific journals. The scientific content of the materials gradually increases in complexity from one level to another. Thus while the first two levels deal basically with science as a subject, the third level will get closer to the field of science as a discipline (Widdowson, 1976). The scientific depth of the materials must be controlled in order to cater for the lack of a solid scientific knowledge on the part of the students, who are in the early stages of their careers and of the teachers, most of whom have not probably been trained in the field of natural sciences.

As mentioned before, courses I-III are graded according to the degree of semantic complexity built into the reading passages. This increasing degree of complexity is correlated, though not necessarily, with an increase in the length of the passages; thus while the first level is based on the use of short texts or even simple or coordinated sentences, English II deals with full paragraphs, and English III will be based on the use of self-contained passages, perhaps at the level of full chapters or independent articles.

3.0. A Syllabus for English III

3.1. Course Description

This is an advanced reading comprehension course aimed at providing

the student with the ability to read scientific and technical materials in order to further his knowledge in his own field of study. Since reading lies at the core of this course, let us briefly consider the type of reading being referred to.

3.2. What is Reading?

The very use of the active participle 'reading' implies that this is an active process, and that even when we use the expression recognition of meaning to refer to certain types of reading, we are also implying that some sort of activity is involved. Widdowson (1978) distinguishes two different types of reading; Comprehending, which is simply 'the ability to recognise sentences and their meanings as linguistic elements', and interpreting, which is the ability to recognise how those sentences 'function as parts of discourse'. Widdowson describes the latter type of reading as follows:

> "Reading as the understanding of discourse does not simply involve the recognition of what words and sentences mean but also the recognition of the value they take on in association with each other as elements in a discourse. What happens when we read with understanding is that we actively work out what the discourse means as we go along, predicting what is to come by reference to what has preceded. Reading in this sense is a kind of accomplishment whereby a discourse is created in the mind by means of a process of reasoning."

A similar view is expressed by Goodman and Goodman (1977) when they point out that "reading... consists of processing language and constructing meaning". Thorndyke (1976), on the basis of experimental research concludes that:

> "prose comprehension consists not only of comprehension of individual sentences, but of the integration of sentences into a larger framework incorporating implicit causal, temporal and motivational information.'

> 'when a subject reads a text he establishes situational contexts as part of the comprehension process. These frames provide expectations for subsequent information against which new sentences can be matched.'

At a more advanced level, reading also involves the establishment of conceptual relationships between the different parts that make up the full text, and the identification of what Selinker et al (1976) call 'rhetorical shifts', that is, the changes in communicative purpose from one part of the text to another.

Our third level is, then, concerned with reading as interpretation, taking into consideration not only the sentences as parts of discourse but also all sorts of non-verbal devices - tables, diagrams, etc. which usually form part of EST reading materials. Reading then cannot be restricted to the interpretation of sentences but needs also to incorporate the information provided by these non-verbal devices and assess the role they play as parts of the text.

3.3. Aims of the Course

As defined earlier, the main objective of the course is to develop in the student the ability to read (interpret) both intensively and extensively scientific and technical passages on subjects of his speciality. In other words, the course attempts to provide the student with a 'potential tool' which he can use in the fulfilment of his foreign language requirements, namely:

a. To acquire new information

b. To increase existing information

c. To update the information he already possesses.

Although a foreign language course like this could be used for a secondary purpose, namely to extend the knowledge of a particular

subject, chemistry, physics or biology, for example, it seems that this would require special conditions, on the part of both the teachers and the students, which are not easy to meet. It is for this reason that the relevant priority must be to extend the knowledge of the language and of the reading process.

Since the students to whom this course is addressed are at the beginning stages of their careers at the university, the aims of the course are more educational than occupational. To a certain extent, this poses a serious difficulty as far as motivation is concerned. Since the foreign language requirements are not perhaps strong enough at the beginning of his career, the student's motivation is not very high; one possible way out of this problem would be to focus attention on the student's actual needs. However, in the absence of a complete and objective study of the type of communicative situations in which the prospective professional will be engaged, the only reasonable thing we can do is to make certain general guesses as to the most adequate type of materials; it is hoped that this will increase motivation and that in the long run the results would be more effective. This is not to suggest that the future applicability of the course is the only way of stimulating motivation since there are other variables like the quality of the materials, the methodology or the teacher's personality that may also contribute significantly to determine the degree of motivation. What I would like to suggest is that the results of a course would be more rewarding if it could be based on a thorough analysis of the students' needs, both present and future.

The aims of the course are thus restricted at least in two general aspects: the selection of a single skill - reading - as the main target

and the type of material to be used in the classroom namely, readings in the area of EST.

Since we have already discussed what is implied by the concept of reading, let us now direct our attention to what lies behind the concept of EST.

Strevens (1972) actually distinguishes three different types of EST: scientific, technological and technical English, which he describes as follows:

> "Scientific English uses the full range of general and scientific concepts, philosophical as well as methodological; it uses the stock of international scientific terminology based on Greek and Latin roots, the terms of particular branches of science, and other coinings; it assumes familiarity with the symbols and visual conventions of mathematics, but except in the field of mathematics itself, it uses less numerical quantification than occurs in technology."
>
> "Technological English makes less use than does 'scientific English' of general conceptual language, but it makes full use of special vocabulary and is strong in its use of numerical quantification and mathematical symbols; there is more reference to the concrete and the practical, as contrasted with more use of the abstract and the philosophical in 'scientific English' "
>
> "Technical English uses little of the language of general, philosophical or even methodological concepts; the special terminology used relates chiefly to concrete objects and practical processes, rather than to abstractions; quantification is mainly a matter of stating measurements rather than the symbolisation of mathematical relationships; there is a good deal of non-scientific or 'common-core' English interspersed in technical texts"

These three varieties of English plus one more - English in advertising - will be represented in the materials. It is hoped that in this way the

course will enable the student to deal with the different varieties and to switch from one to another when the occasion arises.

3.4. A Functional/Notional Syllabus

The syllabus for this course, as those for the first two levels, closely follows the teachings of Widdowson and others who have advocated a communicative approach to the teaching of language. As far as the teaching of EST is concerned, two general views can be associated with this approach.

The first view holds that when teaching language we must proceed from communication to grammar, not the other way round. Mackay and Mountford (1978) support this view when, contrasting traditional and modern approaches to language teaching, they comment:

> "The emphasis is thus on usage, i.e. on the structural characteristics of the language system. It is increasingly being recognised, however, that skill in using the language as a means of communication is not necessarily a consequence of learning it as a formal system"

This change in orientation reflects what Allen and Widdowson call 'a shift of the focus of attention from the grammatical to the communicative properties of language.' This new perspective seems to be particularly relevant in the area of ESP in general, where due to the constraints and demands upon the courses it is necessary to find a way of attaining a particular result as quickly and effectively as possible. Since our main target is the teaching of reading - interpreting - the obvious solution is to start at the level of communication and from there move on to the formal aspects of the language.

According to the second view, the structure of scientific discourse, and perhaps that of technical and technological discourse, is universal, that

is, that scientists everywhere use language to express a well-defined set of concepts and communicative events, which are fundamentally the same, no matter what particular linguistic system is used to express them. Concerning this point, Allen and Widdowson (1976) comment:

> "Learning science... is seen to be not merely a matter of learning facts, but of learning how language is used to give expression to certain reasoning processes, how it is used to define, classify, generalise, to make hypothesis, draw conclusions and so on."

This characteristic of scientific discourse obviously has important implications for the teaching of EST, and helps us to overcome some of the difficulties associated with communicative syllabuses, as I will attempt to demonstrate later on in this paper.

Emphasis on communication does not imply that the formal aspects of the language are neglected. As Widdowson points out: ' ... communicative abilities presuppose linguistic skills and part of the ability to read lies in the skill of comprehending.' What this means is that what is central to the reading process is the interpretation of the semantic content and not the identification of grammatical structures per se. It also means that what the student needs to know is that a particular communicative purpose can be expressed in different ways and that the meaning of grammatical structures cannot be determined in isolation but only within the context in which they are used. Furthermore, it does not seem to be necessary to grade the presentation of grammatical structures on criteria other than statistical indexes of occurrence; this, of course, is something that requires further research before definite conclusions can be formulated. It is hoped that the approach just outlined will permit us to arrive at what Shaw (1977) calls 'the reconciliation ... of communicative and grammaticallobjectives'.

As far as the syllabus for an EST course is concerned, there are two good reasons for framing it within the theoretical guidelines mentioned above. Firstly, given the characteristics of this type of courses, an approach like this would guarantee that the student gets right to what seems to be the most relevant priority in view of his needs. Secondly, this way of approaching scientific discourse provides the student with new insights for handling the type of material with which he will be confronted later on in his career and his professional life. An additional advantage of this approach is that it facilitates the positive transfer of the student's knowledge - both linguistic and scientific - to the second language situation. As Widdowson has repeatedly emphasised, the student already knows something about science and how his native language can be used to convey scientific information; in most cases, the student also knows something about the target language. What is required then is to develop a strategy which allows the student to relate both the linguistic and the scientific knowledge when reading scientific discourse in the second language.

In spite of the obvious advantages that communicative syllabuses seem to offer, they have been objected to on different grounds. It seems to me, however, that these objections are based on unguarded generalisations which gradually lose their validity when applied to the particular field of EST. Two general types of objections have been raised:

The first type has to do with the attempt to overgeneralise the applicability of this type of syllabus. Thus Stratton (1977) questions the tendency to extend the application of the communicative approach arguing that the concept of communicative competence is very difficult to specify and that it is very likely that it changes with culture. Her objection is based on an issue raised by Widdowson, from whom she

quotes:

> "Communicative functions are culture-specific in the same way as linguistic forms are language-specific"

A somewhat similar objection is raised by Cook (1978) when he states:

> " ... we have little idea of how language varies from one situation to another, one topic to another, let alone how it connects with particular functions and notions"

And later on, when objecting to syllabuses based on notional organisation, Cook comments:

> "notional organisation similarly lacks an adequate foundation; nobody really knows what the ideas are that a speaker wants to express.. It also seems to imply that people have the same thoughts, whichever language they speak, and differ simply over which language they use to express them in; one may well have reservations about such a strong statement of the relationship between language and thought and feel that one should allow for the possibility that people from different language backgrounds might want to express rather different ideas through language."

It seems to me that in the same way that the communicative approach can probably not be extended to alltypes of situations, objections to this approach cannot be generalised either, on the assumption that it is impossible to apply it. Thus while it is quite likely that there exist aspects of human behaviour that cannot be captured by universal generalisations, in which case the previous objections would be justified, there are other situations for which the same objection is not valid. In the particular case of EST, we do know what the situations are - since they are related to scientific discourse -and, consequently, we can predict the type of communicative events which are most likely to occur. To ignore this fact is tantamount to assuming that scientific discourse is as changeable and unpredictable as most events in everyday

life. According to this, the objection, even if true when taken in a general sense, ceases to be valid as we get into the type of syllabuses similar to our EST example.

The second type of objection revolves around the relationship between communication and structure. Since in a syllabus of this kind the focus of attention is communication rather than grammar, the question arises as to how to handle the structures used to express a particular communicative event, or how to justify the selection of a given structure rather than another when the two can apparently be equally used. Concerning this point, Cook (1978) comments:

> "Functional organisation on the other hand, still lacks a thorough analysis of the functions for which students need the foreign language; partly also its advocates have been so intent on demonstrating that one function may be expressed through many grammatical forms that they have not seemed prepared to concede that the student may need to be able to produce only one of these grammatical forms per function, at least in the early stages."

Again, while this objection could correctly be raised against a syllabus for a course in general English, it cannot be equally applied to a course in EST, for which the aims, the activities and the materials are clearly defined. As mentioned before, what the student needs to know is that there are different ways of expressing the same communicative event. Beyond this point, any attempt to establish a one-to-one correspondence between the function and form, or a principled basis for the use of different structures would probably lead to the development of artificial materials, thus depriving the student of the opportunity to become acquainted with different ways of expressing the same content.

On the basis of the previous discussion we may conclude that a functional/notional syllabus would be the most adequate for an EST course, where the objections raised against this type of syllabus would not arise.

3.5. Content of the Units

Following a practice established for our first level course, all the units will be preceded by a short description of the type of material to be covered in the unit. The purpose of this description is to make the student aware of the type of material, its communicative potential and, if possible, the relevance of the material for the student's practical needs. As far as the present syllabus is concerned, the introductory part will be used to justify the content of the unit and to anticipate some of the grammatical aspects involved. Obviously, when the final syllabus has been developed, the present introductory remarks will either be revised versions of the ones presented here, or perhaps totally new versions.

The list of topics included in the units must be regarded as tentative as it is possible that a more objective and comprehensive analysis of the students' needs would probably lead to the suppression of some of these topics and the introduction of new ones, or the conflation into a single unit of some of the topics presented now in separate units.

In principle, there seems to be no strong justification for presenting the units in one order rather than another; with other types of materials, however, the units could be arranged in accordance with a specific criterion like degree of generality, frequency of occurrence, and so on. Frequency of occurrence could be used as a reliable criterion but this would require an objective and detailed analysis of the students' needs.

3.5.1. Unit 1: Reviews

Book reviews are aimed at providing the reader with an overall view of the content of a book or paper, and to give him some indication as to the type of background required in order to understand the content of the material or its potential relevance for a particular purpose. Reviews are written by persons other than the authors of the publications and usually express the reviewer's judgement as to the quality of the publication; reviews can either orientate or mislead potential readers, depending on the wisdom and knowledge of the subject on the part of the reviewer.

A. Parts of a review [4]

1. Bibliographical information about the material: title, author, editorial, number of pages, price, etc.
2. General information about the content of the material.
3. Specific information about the content of a particular part or chapter, or even all chapters.
4. Advice to the reader: what he needs to know or what he must do if he wants to profit from the material.
5. Reviewer's judgement of the book.

B. Formal aspects

1. Use of the simple present, usually in the active form to refer to the content of the book.
2. Use of the simple past or the present perfect to refer to previous research or information about past events.

4. The parts of the units may slightly vary from one reading selection to another, as in the case of a book review and the review of a paper, for example. The inventories presented here reflect what seems to be the most common organisation of the different types of reading selections.

3. Use of the third person singular even when expressing the reviewer's personal opinions.

4. Use of the models in order to give advice, instruct or suggest something.

Although the ordering presented above is perhaps the most common, other alternatives are also possible; the parts, however, are usually the same.

3.5.2. Unit II: Abstracts

Abstracts provide the quickest and easiest way of getting information about the general content of a research paper; abstracts are of great help when estimating the relevance of the material for a particular purpose. Most scientific disciplines publish their own abstracts; in addition to this, most research papers are preceded by an abstract which gives some indication of the contents of the paper, the experiments carried out and the results derived from the research. Abstracts are prepared by the authors of the corresponding publications, present the information in a concise and objective way, and usually make no claims as to the quality of the paper or its potential relevance for a specific purpose. Anybody who wants to pursue serious research in a scientific field needs to familiarise himself with this type of material.

A. Parts of an Abstract.

1. Bibliographical information: Title, author, name of author, name of journal in which it was published, numbers of pages.

2. Description of research carried out.

3. Presentation of the results and their implications.

B. Formal aspects

1. Use of the impersonal passive
2. Use of the simple past to describe past research, and of the simple present to refer to possible implications.
3. Use of abbreviations: In addition to what we might call the standard abbreviations (ft., wt., gm., and so on) a good number of technical and scientific words are abbreviated in order to save space; examples of this would be the following: Soln. (solution), expt.)experiment), amts.(amounts), estd. (estimated), etc.

3.5.3. Unit III: Research Reports

Research reports are one of the most common features of technical and scientific English. Most writings of this type are based on a previous experiment carried out with the purpose of testing a hypothesis. In some other cases, however, the research is not based on experimental evidence but on a survey of a body of literature related to a particular topic in order to detect lacks of consistency, or misinterpretations of data or incompleteness.

A. Parts of a report

1. Introduction: the problem in question, survey of previous studies, purpose of new study.
2. Methodology: procedure to be followed, materials or equipment to be used.
3. Description of experiment(s) carried out.
4. Presentation of the results, either verbally or by means of non-verbal devices - graphs, tables, etc.
5. Discussion of results.
6. Conclusions

B. Formal aspects

1. A common feature of this type of writing is the use of different tenses according to the nature of the information being presented.

2. Syntactic devices used to indicate rhetorical shifts from one paragraph to another (Selinker et al,1976)

3.5.4. Unit IV: Technical Manuals

For engineers or technicians working in a factory or doing research in a laboratory, familiarity with technical manuals becomes a necessity. Whenever new equipment or new techniques are introduced or when a failure in the existing equipment occurs, technical manuals usually provide the quickest response to the problem. Understanding manuals is not an easy task even for native speakers of the language (Trimble and Trimble, 1977) since in addition to the linguistic problems they present, there are other problems that render the manuals difficult to understand. Amongst the most salient linguistic features of technical manuals, the following are worth noting:

1. Use of abbreviations: conventional technical terms are usually abbreviated: Vol. (volume), Hz (Hertz), Comp. (compressor) Att. (attenuator).

2. Use of complex noun phrases: paper drive, start-stop toggle switch, versatile multipurpose signal source, automatic frequency scanning drive, 'Power Freq. beat' position, frequency scale alignment adjuster.

3. Use of ambiguous constructions like in some of the previous examples; in the example automatic frequency scanning drive, is it the frequency or the drive which is automatic?

4. Use of highly technical words like Bandwidth, oscilator, transistor, and of common words which have taken up new meanings, as in the case of the underlined words in the following examples: High tune constant (damping), a noise signal with uniform spectrum density (white noise)

5. Suppression of syntactic connectors, as in the following example:

Generator stop: when pressed the output signal from the generator disappears instantly.

Obviously what is intended here is an explanation of the function of the generator stop, but instead of a full explanation what we have is an abbreviated sentence in which some of the elements have been suppressed.

6. Use of non-verbal devices: the information expressed by means of graphs, diagrams, tables, etc. is not incidental information and, therefore, it cannot beleft out if the manual is to be interpreted correctly.

Of all the materials proposed for this syllabus manuals are perhaps the most difficult to read, mainly if the materials are studied in the absence of the instrument or equipment to which the manual refers.

A. Purpose of a manual

1. To describe parts or functioning, or both.
2. To give instructions as to how to operate an instrument or how to carry out a process.

B. Formal aspects

1. Use of the imperative and some other verbal forms in order to give instructions.

2. Use of complex noun phrases, mainly for describing parts or functioning.

3. Use of technical vocabulary and of common words endowed with new meaning.

3.5.5. Unit V. Advertisements

The inclusion of this type of material in a course like this is very likely to generate controversy, disagreement or even rejection unless it can convincingly be shown that it is a good thing for future professionals to know how to read advertisements.

It seems to me that the inclusion of advertisements can be justified on two different counts:
First of all, their frequency of occurrence; for professionals or technicians working in a factory, for example, advertisements provide a quick way of getting information about new products, new equipment, advisory service, and so on. Leaving aside its possible ill effects, advertising plays a crucial role in promoting new products, new techniques, and it is for this reason that people working in a factory should be familiar with the reading of advertisements. On the other hand, it might be the case that in the field of industry or technology advertising is more objective, more descriptive of the product and, consequently, less misleading for the potential customer than the advertisements used to promote common products.

Secondly, from the linguistic point of view, the language used in advertising exhibits features which are not likely to be found in other types of reading materials, and this makes the reading of advertisements even more difficult. The most relevant features of the language of

advertisements are perhaps brevity and effectiveness. In order to save space and to avoid tiring the reader, most advertisements are very short, contain only content words leaving out grammatical connectors or whatever word or words that could perhaps distract the reader; for this reason, most advertisements are written in a sort of 'telegraphic language', using truncated expressions the comprehension of which requires not so much a good knowledge of the language but some degree of familiarity with this type of material. As far as effectiveness is concerned, advertisements have to be worded in such a way that they impress the reader, persuade him of the quality of the product being promoted, or create in him the desire to acquire the new product. In order to ensure effectiveness advertisements usually make use of certain kinds of words or expressions which supposedly produce the desired effect; imperatives, adjectives and comparatives are the items most commonly used to this effect.

It is then the use of new structures, or of old structures endowed with new meanings which makes this type of language difficult to read and understand. This characteristic of advertising, together with its frequency of occurrence and its usefulness in conveying new information are, in my opinion, good reasons for including advertisements in a course like the one being proposed here.

A. Parts of an advertisement

1. Luring word or sentence
2. Description of new item
3. Application or use of new item
4. Comparison with competing products
5. Additional information; name and address of producer or distributor.

B. Formal aspects

1. Use of imperatives and adjectives

2. Suppression of grammatical connectors

3. Comparatives

Again, as in the case of some of the previous units, the above outline provides only an indication of what seems to be the most common structure of written advertisements; deviations from this pattern are probably neither wide nor numerous.

3.6. Materials

The number of reading selections included in each unit will depend, onviously, on the length and complexity of the readings themselves; thus while some units - abstracts and advertisements, for example - may contain several selections, other units - the one on technical manuals, for example - would contain two readings at most. This lack of balance in the distribution of reading selections represents a problem not so much for the preparation of the materials but for their utilization in the classroom. Let us consider, for example, the unit on research reports; given the fact that these reports are usually long, it would be impossible to include more than two of these readings in the unit, thus depriving the students of the opportunity of receiving a good training in the handling of this type of material. One possible way out of this problem would be to use one of the readings for the purposes of explanation and discussion in the classroom, and reserve the other for practising purposes or as the basis for homework.

So far I have, to a certain extent, avoided the use of the term paragraph and used reading selection or passage instead; the reason for this is that the term paragraph, as commonly used, designates an ill-defined concept,

and quite frequently it is used inconsistently to refer either to stretches of written material signalled by punctuation marks or indentation, or to whole units of content regardless of their physical composition. Lackstrom et al (1974) use the labels physical and conceptual paragraphs to refer to the two types of paragraphs mentioned above. The readings to be included in the units will be instances of conceptual paragraphs. The materials will be authentic in the sense defined by Wilkins (1976), who refers to authentic materials as those which "... have not been specially written or recorded for the foreign learner, but which were originally directed at a native-speaking audience". Widdowson (1978) refers to this quality of the materials using the term genuineness; authenticity for Widdowson is not a feature of the materials themselves but a characteristic of the reading process; as he points out:

> "Authenticity... is a function of the interaction between the reader/hearer and the discourse as incorporating the intentions of the writer/speaker."

Although it is assumed that the materials for the third level will be 'more complex' than those for the first two levels, no special claim will be made as to the degree or nature of that complexity. It seems to me that since complexity depends largely upon semantic and grammatical factors of the text on the one hand, and on the state of knowledge of the student on the other, it is not always safe or even possible to predict the degree of complexity of a given material for a given group of students. For one thing, attempts to solve the problem of predicting structural complexity by counting the new words or structures do not seem to provide a satisfactory solution (Corder, 1973). Any attempt to assess the degree of difficulty on the basis of semantic content will undoubtedly be less successful. Under these circumstances, all we can do for the time

being is to make certain general guesses as to the difficulty of the material in question.

Vocabulary does not seem to represent a special problem for Spanish speakers concerned with EST courses; due to the high number of cognates in the two languages, technical and scientific vocabulary facilitates reading comprehension. This common lexical core constitutes what Strevens (1972) calls a 'sublanguage', which is one of the features of EST. According to this, it would then be more appropriate to direct the students' attention to those words which are familiar to them rather than let them stumble upon each unknown word.

3.7. Types of Exercises

In this section I will discuss briefly the general types of exercises which will accompany the units; I will present only a general indication of the different types of exercises without attempting to provide any details as to the nature of the exercises or their relevance within a particular context.

A question may well arise when we come to the problem of producing exercises for a new course. Many a language teacher has probably felt disappointed or even frustrated when he realises that the same 'old type' of exercises come over and over again, and that new materials are not always associated with new exercises. It seems to me that there is a set of basic exercises which constitute as it were a finite inventory, and that there seems to be little chance of radically altering the stock of exercises which has been used since long ago. Under these circumstances the most sensible thing to do would be to change the context of the exercises, modify the purposes for which they are used, or impose

certain requirements upon the answers demanded. What we should do then is not to reject one exercise just because it looks familiar, but to look into the possibilities of using it in a different way on the assumption that what is really important is not the novelty of the exercise itself but the potential use we can give to it.

In a third level course, however, the selection of the exercises should not represent any problem at all since a course like this should be concerned with the reading process itself and not with the solution of exercises which very frequently do not throw any light upon what goes on when the reader attempts to 'negotiate' meaning. This, however, is a question which will not be explored any further in this paper. With this in mind, the following types of exercises could be used in the units being proposed here:

1. Answering questions
2. Multiple choice
3. Matching columns
4. Cloze tests and cloze-type exercises (blank-filling)
5. Gradual approximation (Widdowson, 1978)
6. Summarising
7. Non-verbal exercises, like drawing or completing diagrams, making drawings, etc.

4.0. Methodology

A course like this must be activity-based; in other words, the teacher's role must be that of stimulating and directing the students' active participation; as mentioned at the beginning of this paper, the student is in the position to contribute significantly with his knowledge - both linguistic and scientific - to the learning process.

According to this, part of the material included in the units should be used for the purposes of discussion and explanation in the classroom while the rest should be devoted to practice and verification of comprehension on the part of the students.

5.0. Conclusions

1. Although the syllabus just presented is not as detailed and explicit as an actual syllabus would probably be, it seems to me that a good part of the suggestions presented in this paper could be applied to the design of any course which in general terms fits the situation depicted here.
2. Modifications will probably be required in the organisation and the contents of some of the units in order to make them fit the students' actual needs; any modification, however, will have to wait until the actual course has been developed and the real problems have been spotted.
3. A more detailed analysis of the structure of the readings proposed as the basis for this syllabus would throw more light upon the semantic organisation of the texts; application of the findings of discourse analysis would probably be the first step in that direction.

A FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO THE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE NEEDS IN AN OCCUPATIONAL SETTING: ENGLISH FOR SWEDISH PHARMACISTS

Patricia Hedge

It is my intention in this paper to investigate the possibilities of applying a functional approach to the analysis of English language needs in an occupational setting and further to discuss the translation of the needs thus defined into the elements of a teaching programme. Although a specific group is under consideration here, that of Swedish pharmacists, many points related to needs analysis and course design are generalisable within the field of ESP.

The following discussion falls into three related sections. Firstly, a brief consideration of the occupational setting and the students provides background in terms of context and constraints for a discussion of data collection and needs analysis. Secondly the patterns of language in occupational use are determined within a functional model and the priority needs of students identified. Finally, the salient points for course design are outlined and examples given of materials designed to fulfil specific needs.

(1) The Occupational Setting

Significant aspects of the occupational background and their implications for English language teaching can be itemised as follows. Firstly, to do with the frame of reference, a "pharmacy" is just that and nothing more, a centre for the dispensing and sale of pharmaceutical and medical products and preparations, usually with a simple division of customer transactions into prescription and non-prescription sides. Secondly, a modern, centrally administered system with a good deal of in-service training requires that pharmacists keep abreast of research

Footnote: This paper is not related, except in terms of analysing the needs of the specific group, to any existing materials for teaching English to Swedish pharmacists.

and attend conferences at an international level. English is required for both activities. Thirdly, a significant proportion of products are imported from Britain and the U.S.A. accompanied by literature in English. Also the nature of the Swedish medical system is such that the pharmacist performs the advice-giving role to a greater extent than in Britain, though naturally his 'diagnostic' function is controlled by a strict professional code. Finally, the urban pharmacist will come into contact with a high proportion of native and non-native speakers of English, in the form of tourists, students and immigrants, in his daily work.

(2) The Students

A complete needs analysis would involve testing of the students' proficiency in English at entry in relation to the target level required to fulfil various occupational needs. It is one task to specify specialised aims in terms of the use of English in a certain context but another and more difficult task to decide on a target level in linguistic terms and to shape the content of the course accordingly. A great deal depends on the level from which the learner starts and on the extent to which the ability of a student to cope with the 'specialised' English of a particular field is related to his level of achievement from previous learning. This is the point Perren makes (1965):

> "The elusive question here is what stage of language learning the general becomes the special, and how far sophistication in specialised language depends on familiarity with 'ordinary' language."

Pharmacists usually have a fairly extensive 'passive' knowledge of English and their reading skills are the most highly developed because of the demands of earlier university studies. The students, then, are

already familiar with what Widdowson (1976) calls "science as subject, science teacher to science student, as in textbooks", which may provide a useful stepping stone to the type of discourse between professionals, "science as discipline .. as in learned journals" which students now require. The task of the course designer, then is to analyse such discourse in authentic samples and isolate, as far as possible, those features which may cause 'difficulty' in comprehension.

It is with spoken English that students tend to have most difficulty, not so much with the specialised lexis of their particular field but with 'laymen's language' employed by customers and with expressing simple functions in appropriate language.

Another dimension which needs to be established is the students' experience and previous knowledge of their own specialised field which obviously will influence course content and teaching techniques employed. Pharmacists come quite definitely within the category of post-experience and exercises can be designed which exploit their training and job experience.

(3) Estimating Language needs

The method which presents itself as perhaps the easiest to carry out, that of asking students to specify their language needs, is not necessarily the most useful. James (1974) suggests that the differing terminology which exists indicates the problem, for example the distinction between demands as "the definite wishes expressed by employers or would-be learners" and needs as "what those employers and learners perhaps ought to want".

The issue is whether a group of students can be aware of their exact language needs. The most sensible solution seems to be to take into

account the students' desires and expectations but to concentrate on what can be observed of language use. Working on this principle it is possible to drawup the following table of language needs. Division into these crude categories according to the traditional four skills can later be refined.

Reading	articles in journals and textbooks; written instructions on foreign products brought in by customers; information on foreign products issued by suppliers
Writing	instructions on dispensed medicines
Listening	to conference talks and discussions on pharmaceutical subjects; to customers on the telephone; to customers in the pharmacy: native speakers and non-native speakers
Speaking	giving a talk or report at a conference; showing foreign visitors round a pharmacy; asking questions in conference discussion; to customers on the telephone; to customers in the pharmacy

In the speaking skills section it is important to note that the activities required of the pharmacist in English include both professional to professional discourse and professional to lay discourse, a distinction to be taken into account in course design since the problems are different and should be separately trained. Training professional to professional discourse is more problematical since, if the teacher attempts to involve himself in such discourse practised in the classroom, either to direct or participate, he occasions a

switch, as a non-specialist, to discourse addressed to lay persons. The implications for course design in such a situation are discussed by Joan and Richard Alwright (1977) with regard to medical English and the problems and options open to the teacher are similar here; either the teacher must abstain from verbal participation and some technique be found for training without his verbal presence or the teacher must be trained to a reasonably high degree in the specialist subject.

As far as the Listening section is concerned, the course designer must be aware of another important distinction, that between comprehension of English native speakers and non-native speakers. The same distinction, of course, exists in the English used at international conferences though the standard of communicative competence would be very much higher and the problem correspondingly less urgent. The question for the course designer is whether it is possible to predict and train for the difficulties of understanding 'foreign English'.

It is also necessary to prioritise needs. An effective method is to question prospective students, using the type of questionnaire shown overleaf. A detailed list of predicted difficulties can be given and provision made for the addition of others by the student. Even though fairly crude categories of difficulty are given and require self-assessment, with its inherent defects, by the students, such a method does allow quantification and a foundation for course objectives. A part of a possible questionnaire is reproduced overleaf.

Please indicate by ticking the boxes what degree of difficulty you have with English in these situations			
	Degree of difficulty		
	High	Moderate	Low
Rapid reading of text books, journals, brochures etc. to get information			
Detailed study of articles etc.			
Reading of instructions on foreign products			
Writing notes for papers, reports to be given in English			
Writing instructions on dispensed medicines			

ETC.

(4) Collecting data as a base for course design

An ideal course preparation for this target group would involve the following:

1. A survey, carried out by means of a questionnaire, of prospective students, cataloguing language needs and allowing needs to be set in order of priority.
2. Interviews with prospective students which would give valuable insight into the problems of the working situation.
3. An interview with the sponsors to establish the wishes and expectations of the employers.

4. Familiarisation of the course designer with pharmacy procedures gained by observation, for example, the procedures for taking in and dispensing of prescriptions, the protocol for written instructions and so on.

5. Collections of a representative sample of pharmaceutical products to be used in training.

6. Collections of appropriate foreign products with written instructions in English which a pharmacist might be presented with.

7. Collection of representative articles in journals and textbooks and of information brochures encountered by students.

8. By far the highest proportion of contact with English comes through the daily routine of dealing with customers in the pharmacy and this is the most difficult data to collect. The technical and practical difficulties of recording transactions in English are considerable, and of limited value when the visual element of demonstrating how to use a product is so important. It is possible instead, to use a number of sources: information from students, observation of pharmacy interactions, intuitions of native speakers about how they would request service, or make enquiries, and to some extent the recordings of non-native speakers making enquiries.

(5) Interactions in the Pharmacy

For any language teaching operation it is necessary to specify aims precisely. In the field of EOP these are perhaps best formulated in terms of the interactions which students must take part in and the functions of speech they must be able to perform effectively. The most sensible approach might therefore be to determine the typical interactions

in which students are involved and then to make a further analysis of what Trim (1974) calls:

> " the sequences of operations which serve the interactions; the operations may then be defined according to their behavioural or functional, notional and linguistic content."

The approach taken in this paper, then, is to study the language in occupational use, define the language functions of greatest importance and the notions of highest frequency and use these as the core of course design. The first task is to draw up a list of interactions and to obtain relevant information from students about their relative importance in terms of frequency of occurence and difficulty experienced with each.

A part of the final list of language operations in the pharmacy is shown below, that section dealing with prescription-free products:

Interaction	Language operations
1. Fulfilling request for specific product	dispensing product, taking payment
2. Giving advice about products for a specific complaint	questioning about complaint, advice giving, instructions for use, taking payment.
3. Recommending products when choice available	questioning for information, discussing advantages, advice-giving, explanation of use, taking payment.
4. Refusing a request - referral to a doctor.e.g. requires prescription	refusal, explanation of problem, explanation of how to consult a doctor, offer of help etc.
5. Identifying a foreign product: finding equivalent	questioning, advice-giving explanation, directions for use, taking of payment.

Once a list of language operations has been drawn up, the next step is to analyse the language involved in terms of language functions which

themselves determine in part the concepts expressed and the appropriate grammatical forms employed. The concepts, of course also determine lexis, as do the objects and actions of the situation. Following this model, it would be possible to take language interaction 2 and to define the language functions as follows: offer of service; eliciting information; direct questioning to clarify circumstances; recommendation: of a product; explanation of its virtues; instruction in use of the product; check for comprehension; reassurance of customer; taking payment; leave-taking. The operations would also involve general notions such as measure, time, properties, and specific notions such as parts of the body, symptoms of complaints, and types of preparation e.g. linctus, tablet, etc.

The language patterns thus determined form a pattern, in much the same way as Candlin et al (1975) found the functions of language in the speech acts of doctors in casualty were "serially patterned". The language in use shows both constants and variables: obviously the input from the customer is beyond the pharmacist's initial control, though its course can be directed subsequently by careful questioning. The varying enquiries will pattern each interaction differently, but there are constants: the pharmacist always greets, requests payment, takes leave etc. and other functions have very high frequency of occurence, e.g. giving instructions, giving advice and so on. The implications for the course designer are that an effective course would incorporate and direct attention to these functions of language.

Analysing language functions is a complex task. Without an adequate description of the relationship between linguistic form and functions it is difficult to draw up a comprehensive catalogue of language

functions, differentiated sufficiently to form the basis of teaching programmes. Several lists have been drawn up: Cowie and Heaton (1977), Freeman and McDonough (1975) Wilkins (1976). The most useful tentative list in this instance is that of Candlin et al (1975) since it is based on spoken data in an occupational setting and not on textual analysis. Their classification of functions into task orientated, both cognitive and affective, and meta-communicative are most appropriate to the pharmacy situation. For example, in the operations described above, for giving advice about products for a particular complaint, functions could be described in the following manner:

Task-oriented		Meta-communicative
Cognitive	Affective	
offer of service	greeting	check for comprehension
eliciting information	leave taking	
direct questioning	reassurance	
recommendation		
explanation		
instruction in use		
request for payment		

These divisions are obviously not rigid. Certain functions are cognitive, e.g. direct questioning, and closely related to specific tasks, whereas others are primarily affective, e.g. reassurance. 'Offer of service' is part of the professional code - 'Can I help you?' almost an 'eliciting information' nature, but it could also be categorised as affective, a reassuring opening, or even as meta-communicative, a means of establishing contact. However it is generally possible in this case to categorise functions sufficiently to study their distribution and significance for establishing teaching priorities.

The functional approach has drawbacks, not the least in practical terms being the lack of any one to one correspondence between functions and linguistic form and the decisions to be made in selecting one set of forms rather than another. However, its advantages are clear. Basing the teaching programme on a systematic presentation of the functional meanings, the uses of language in the occupational setting points the way to appropriate language structures and helps to order the course by demonstrating which functions and notions should take priority. In general terms then, the approach to course design taken in this paper is to answer the two basic questions of which functions of language are most significant in this occupational setting and which forms related to those functions are most useful to teach the specific group of students. And in answer to the second question the criteria for selection would be the usual ones of effectiveness, economy in learning for the particular students in relation to prior learning, general usefulness and widest possible application.

(6) Topics in a Functional Approach

Apart from language functions, the other major consideration for course design is the wide area of topics within which those language functions will be employed and the associated specialised lexis. A good deal of lexis will be known already since names of drugs, weights, measures and dosages do not vary internationally. However, there are many aspects which must be learnt, names of parts of the body, descriptions of symptoms and complaints, types of pharmaceutical products and so on. Since the language functions will be employed in relation to different topics, then topics would seem a reasonable basis for course structure. The most logical criterion for organisation of the course would appear

to be a systematic division into topics, according to drugs affecting different body systems. For each topic, the lexis concerning specific parts of the body will require learning. It is also possible to focus on the significant areas for customer enquiry and course design can focus practise of language functions in simulation dialogues on those points. Some topics, for example, drugs acting on the heart and blood, fertility drugs, drugs stimulating the nervous system, are of academic interest rather than customer interest. Here it would be possible for course design to concentrate on the study skills aspect, to be discussed later. The following extract from the course syllabus demonstrates the points made above.

Topic: drugs according to effect	Parts of body	Focal points for customer enquiry
Drugs acting on the respiratory system	The nose The ear The chest The larynx	Treatment of ear-ache Treatment of nasal problems Coughs, colds and influenza Allergies and asthma
i) drugs stimulating the respiratory centre		
ii) drugs depressing the respiratory centre		
iii) drugs affecting bronchial secretion		
iv) drugs affecting nose and nasal sinuses		
v) drugs applied to larynx		

The course would be flexible in terms of topic selection. This is for two reasons. Firstly, the course should allow for inclusion of up-to-date material. If a revolutionary new drug appears during the course period, the students will want to discuss it, bring along articles, information brochures etc. Likewise if dangerous side effects are discovered for some popular drug or if reports of research in new areas are published. Secondly, students have their own special interests. One pharmacist may be particularly

knowledgeable about drugs for diabetes, another be very interested in nutrition, another in allergies. This knowledge and experience can be utilised on the course to everyone's benefit and provide individual motivation. A flexible approach to topic selection provide an up-to-date, relevant, and professionally useful course.

(7) Provision for Study Skills

The teaching of study skills is a wide subject outside the scope of this paper which focuses more on the speech acts of daily pharmacy routine. In comparison to this area of activity the study skills required of pharmacists in English are employed less frequently. The skills generally found to be most difficult are giving a talk or report at a conference and asking questions in conference discussion. It would therefore be useful if a course could incorporate practice in these areas. Studying specialised texts would also be an integral part of the course, to refresh knowledge, to introduce new information in English, to establish the lexis for a specific topic and to improve efficiency and speed of comprehension.

It is possible to present different styles of discourse and different levels of difficulty by using authentic texts of the type encountered by students. For example, when dealing with the topic, "Drugs acting on the Respiratory System", it would be useful to study a text of the type written to the lay public about asthmatic problems and a text from a "Materia Medica" written for professional personnel. The differences of lexis and syntax in the two styles can be exemplified by quoting from the texts the section describing disodium chromoglycate. First the text for a lay public.

"The drug is particularly useful in allergic asthma. It

must be stressed that it prevents asthma but will not help when used during a wheezing episode. Intal prevents symptoms if used before contact with allergic items such as dust, pets or food."

This can be compared with the following professional to professional discourse:

"Disodium chromoglycate ('Intal') is used in bronchial asthma but it is not a bronchodilator. It inhibits allergic reactions in the bronchi and is therefore employed prophylactically."

There are several advantages gained from using both kinds of text as course material. The first is encountered by the pharmacist in his own reading, the second is the language of the information brochures he receives and familiarity with it may assist him in his own explanations to customers.

Reading activities can form the basis of practice in seminar strategies, in the same way that a pharmacist would prepare for a conference on new drugs by reading up the subject. For example a group of students could be assigned different tasks in preparation for a seminar: one could be asked to inform himself about customer problems in asthma, another could read a text about drugs, another an information brochure about a new drug, others could prepare demonstrations in the use of sample drugs and yet others prepare questions.

This preparation would be preliminary to a seminar session with talks, reports, demonstrations and discussions, in which the teacher's role is to remain in the background and note areas where follow-up assistance

can be given with language problems. Such activity allows the practice of preparing a short talk and seminar strategies. It is difficult to assess how far students can actually be taught, rather than just practise the techniques needed, both verbal and non-verbal, to participate effectively in a conference. The identification which Price (1977) makes of the stages involved in presenting a topic and her suggestion for helping students with the language needed for arranging their ideas is very useful. Students could use appropriate language presented by the teacher in a functional way to fulfil the purposes of introducing a topic, inviting questions and so on, both to present their own work and to identify the stages in other students' talks.

These are only a few aspects of study skills, briefly covered. The priority for course design would be spoken English in the pharmacy.

(8) Course locale

There is the issue of whether an ESP course based on simulation, should take pharmacy or classroom as course locale. The classroom has the material advantages of video and tape recording facilities, but otherwise teaching equipment can be imported to the pharmacy. The pharmacy has the obvious advantage of being the authentic occupational setting of the language being learnt and facilitates simulation. Candlin et al (1975) raise some interesting questions about simulation as the basis of a course, even more significant if the course takes place in the job setting:

> "Although a first impression is that the learner 'on home ground' will feel more at ease, and so maintain a better ps psychological 'set', it is po-sible to imagine this working

the other way. Thus the professional in the role of learner may be in danger of seeing in the simulation no more than a parody of his job."

Moreover the setting may have the effect of triggering off erroneous conditioned responses'. On the other hand it is possible to argue that the pharmacy provides a contextual framework and that the presence of preparations, equipment and facility of procedures create a valuable psychological and material point of departure. It would seem sensible to vary the course locale if possible, using the classroom for seminar situations and the pharmacy for simulation of speech acts occurring daily with customers.

(9) Simulation as a Learning Device

As stated earlier, the approach to material design is to select language functions, general and specific notions, appropriate grammatical forms and lexis for the occupational setting. This means selecting priority functions such as eliciting information, giving instructions and selecting notions from the topics which customer enquiries most probably concern, for example, skin care, dental hygiene, stomach complaints, baby care etc. At an early stage in the course, the programme would be concerned with practising a range of important language functions e.g. instructing, and with teaching important general notions, such as names for types of preparation, for complaints and for parts of the body. At later stages the task will be to introduce specific notions associated with certain topics and special lexis and employing these in further practice of language functions. The course designer is concerned with finding ways of initiating language situations in different ways which allow for realistic practice. These may be

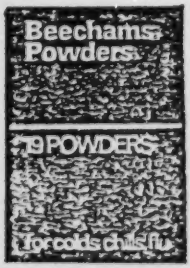
confined to one language function or may cover an entire speech act. An example of material to practise the first, the function of giving instructions, is set out on the following page. Having first studied the directions for use in Swedish, students would then practice using only word prompts and would finally move on to practise using only the product for demonstration. Other material can be designed to initiate an entire speech act, for example, the teacher takes the role of a customer who enters the pharmacy with a foreign product. Teacher's notes provide him with imaginary symptoms and a history. The pharmacist is then required to go through the procedure of identifying the complaint, the product and recommending an equivalent.

Give advice to an English tourist who comes to your pharmacy with this empty container, having run out of the medication.

What questions would you ask?

What advice would you give?

What instructions would you give about the product you recommend?



Contains Paracetamol

MU-CROK

TABLETS

DIRECTIONS

Adults: ONE or TWO tablets, two or three times daily as required, swallowed with a drink. The maximum dose at one time is TWO tablets, usually required only when the condition is particularly painful or severe.
The maximum daily dose is six tablets but after the first few days no more than three tablets daily should be necessary.
Children: 16-18 years: A maximum of three tablets daily with an interval of at least four hours between each one tablet dose. A half tablet is sometimes sufficient. 6-9 years: A maximum of three half tablets daily with an interval of at least four hours between each dose.
Under six years of age: Not suitable except on medical advice. Mucrox Liquid is more especially for young children.
If symptoms persist consult your doctor.
Mucrox's low dosage makes it inexpensive to use.

Warning. Do not exceed the stated dose

If you are receiving medicines from your doctor consult him before taking Mucrox.

Keep medicines out of reach of children

Colds, chills, Influenza. Beechams Powders are specially formulated with ingredients known for their effectiveness in relieving cold and flu symptoms. Being in extra fine powder form they are easy for the stomach to absorb and rapid in action.

Headache, nerve and rheumatic pains. The powders will effectively relieve headache, neuralgia, toothache, period pains, rheumatism, etc.

KEEP ALL MEDICINES OUT OF REACH OF CHILDREN

Formula: Aspirin 79.30% Salicylamide 7.34% Caffeine 2.79% Calcium Phosphate 8.54% Sodium Lauryl Sulphate 0.15% Cinnamon Oil 0.12% Cinnamon Leaf Oil 0.47% Saccharin Sodium 0.29%
P.L. 0078/5000

Follow dosage instructions on individual wrappers

Made by beechams of St. Helens, England

How to use homudal (disodium cromoglycate)

Explain to a customer how to use homudal with the help of these pictures.

1. 4 times daily, unsuitable during attack

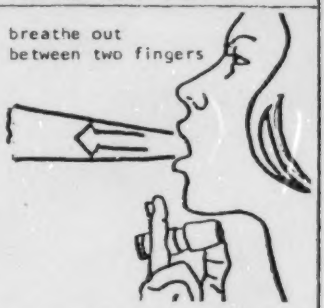
2. hold, white mouthpiece, table.

3. screw upperpart stand anti-clockwise

4. insert bottom-most propeller carefully check moves freely

5. replace clockwise

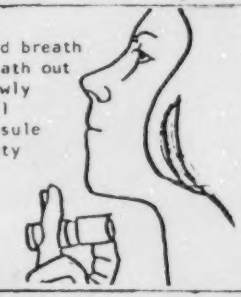
6. thumb
index fingers
pierces
firm downward movement



7. breathe out
between two fingers

8. bend head backwards
inside the teeth

press lips
breathe in strongly deeply



9. hold breath
breath out
slowly
till
capsule
empty

One of the main problems in this type of simulation is providing the necessary range of English speakers. It is easy enough for the teacher to take the part of the customer but this provides only one English voice. A possible solution would be to tape a variety of native English speakers and foreign speakers of English, prompting them as to their ailment and devising a dialogue, with teacher as pharmacist, based on observation of real situations. This would provide a model and a comprehension activity.

(10) The Remedial Aspect

The fact that the language taught and practised will be, as far as possible, that of the functions in occupational use, does not exclude the possibility that remedial work in structure will be necessary. Within a functional framework it is difficult to focus on structure in a traditionally graded way, but it is important that a pharmacist can convey meaning accurately, without being misunderstood. James (1974) writing about the teaching of medical English asks the question

> "How much confidence will patients have in an NHS consultant who can only use the infinitive form of the verb."

The same question can be asked about the position of a pharmacist. Customers may hae little confidence in the advice of a pharmacist who cannot make himself understood. Furthermore, the safety factor in comprehending the correct use of drugs is of paramount importance.

Remedial 'grammar' teaching is advisable, on an ad-hoc basis to deal with individual students' mistakes, and to correct more general faults in the group.

(11) A Sample of Course Materials

The idea of using a diagram to introduce the unit is in agreement with Widdowson's (1976) suggestion for using diagrams as 'priming devices'. The student is accustomed to dealing with diagrams in textbooks; such devices are part of a pharmacist's knowledge of pharmacology in his own language. It is not, therefore, just a language teaching aid but a genuine communicative device which appeals to the learner's knowledge or interest in the subject matter in dissociation from its linguistic expression in English. In this way, the 'non-verbal device' acts as a 'point of reference for verbal realisation in the student's own language and English'. It is therefore a very useful entry point to a new topic and associated lexis.

The texts are selected from authentic material to introduce and present the concepts, notions and related linguistic forms and lexical items for the topic. Pupils are required to study these at home and to have familiarised themselves with the information so that the classroom can be used for simulation activities. The exercises are devised to direct attention to lexical items and to practise using them in context. The first exercise quite simply isolates particularly useful lexical items, generally applicable in many pharmaceutical topics, and new lexical items. The sentences are taken directly from the text and therefore direct attention to important information. The second exercise is of a similar type, though here the emphasis is on specific verbs in the text which should be remembered because of their general usefulness. Several verbs would fill the blanks. Marking the exercise in class should give rise to discussion of which is the most appropriate form, for example, in a) shows or indicates, in g) put in or instilled and

so on. Exercise 3 relies more on the student's knowledge of grammatical structures. He cannot take sentences direct from the text but must construct his own. It is a straightforward exercise, but as Widdowson points out (1976):

> "he is not just constructing sentences for their own sake in isolation from a relevant context of use: they are reformulations of information....."

These exercises then direct the learner's attention to useful items, aid memory, and assist him in assimilating new information into his existing knowledge of the language.

Study of information conveyed in the diagram and texts form the basis of practice in seminar strategies. Many students experience difficulty in comprehension of spoken English and are unable to formulate contributions to discussion quickly. Practice in a more informal setting provides confidence and skills for 'the real thing'. As far as possible talks given by students should also include demonstrations. This allows for a slight switch from formal to less formal discourse, gives practice in explanation, and ensures a talk rather than a 'read' paper.

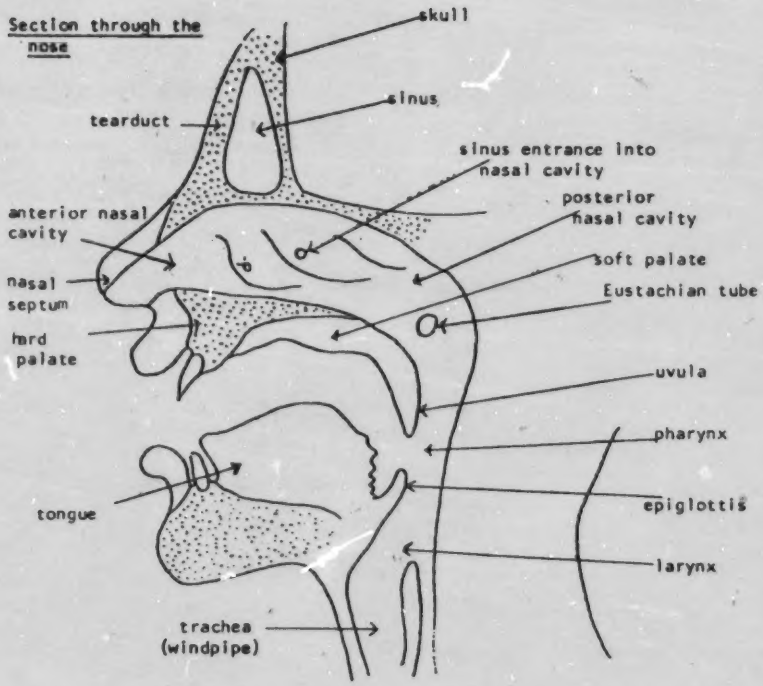
The first dialogues are set out as full models of the target language situation andaappropriate forms for particular language functions can be pointed out:

Direct questioning:	Have you ever used them before?
Giving instructions:	You should .....
	You must .....
Giving advice:	Yes, you can, but I'm afraid.....
	The best thing would be if you ....
Reassurance:	It's quite easy, really.

In this way the pattern is set for using the new lexical items of the specific topic in terms of language functions already practised.

Other 'springboards' for simulation would be treated in similar manner, according to a basic procedure. Firstly, the group, working together, would discuss the task, giving instructions for the use of antihistamine tablets, nose drops, and a nasal antiseptic cream, and what is involved, the dosages, the necessary instructions. In other words, they clarify the technical information required to perform the task. Then, working with the teacher as language informant and director, discussion would centre on the appropriate forms and lexical items for the exchange between customer and pharmacist. The teacher can prompt by suggesting enquiries from the customer. Students then work in pairs on the dialogue, reversing roles to practise the situation. At a later stage students perform the dialogue, each pair presenting their allotted situation while the teacher listens and assesses, comments and corrects. Finally, the teacher can set up remedial work.

In this way, a specific situation or problem or task which the students frequently face in their occupation, can be simulated and thereby provide training and practice in using appropriate effective language.



NASAL PROBLEMS

The Common Cold

Colds are commonly caused by adenoviruses which are spread by droplet infection. There is usually a slight fever with nasal obstruction, thin nasal discharge, nasal or pharyngeal irritation, dry and sore throat, restlessness and loss of appetite. Secondary infection by group A streptococci, staphylococci, pneumococci or H. influenza can lead to complications such as otitis media, mastoiditis or sinusitis. Severe pain in the head or cheeks are a sign that a serious condition such as sinusitis has developed: inflammation and pain or discharge from the ear indicate otitis media. In these cases a doctor's advice must be sought.

Nose Bleeds

Epistaxis is commonly due to trauma (including nose picking) and involves the venous plexus in the anterior nares. It can usually be stopped with a plug of cotton wool in the nose. If the bleeding is heavy the patient should sit up, head bent slightly forward, a finger pressed against the side of the nose that is bleeding, breathe through his mouth and avoid swallowing. If infection is present an antibiotic cream such as Naseptin may be applied two or three times daily.

If a child bleeds in the posterior nasal cavity it may be due to more serious disorders of the clotting mechanism or leukaemia. Packing of the affected side with long 1/4 inch strips of gauze (petroleum jelly) may be required while the underlying disorder is treated. The gauze strips should be replaced daily.

The high blood pressure type of nose-bleeding usually occurs in middle age. The bleeding comes from high up in the nose and is difficult to stop! Recurrent nose-bleeding in anyone over forty requires immediate investigation by a doctor.

Nasal Allergies

Hay fever is an allergy to inhalants such as pollen (especially grass) dusts and danders. It is associated with excess sneezing, tear formation and swelling of the eyes and nasal mucosa, when a patient comes into contact with the allergens. The mucosa is usually pale and swollen with a profuse, thin discharge, and may obstruct the nose sufficiently to cause mouth breathing. The swelling may be so marked as to produce polyps. This condition may be seasonal or perennial.

Drugs acting on the nose and nasal sinuses

As well as remedies against pain and fever, in case of a cold, such as aspirin preparations, there are various drugs employed for nasal congestion or infection. Antibiotic drugs, creams such as Naseptin, applied several times daily, are effective against infection. Antihistamines are taken orally to dry mucous secretions, decrease nose tissue swelling and stop the itching in the nose. The antihistamines include:

Theporin	(Pheindamine)	25 to 50 mg
Phenergan	(Promethazine)	25 to 70 mg
Benadryl	(Diphenhydramine)	50 mg
Histantin	(Chlorcyclizine)	50 to 100 mg
Antistin	(Antazoline)	100 mg
Anthisan	(Mepyramine)	100 mg
Piriton	(Chlorpheniramine)	4 mg

They are given once, twice or three times a day acceeding to their duration of action and should be taken after meals. They sometimes produce marked drowsiness and should not be taken before driving a car or undertaking work requiring special skill unless their precise effect on the individual is known.

The other important drugs can be described according to their method of application.

Nasal Drops (Naristillale)

The most well known are ephedrine nasal drops which have a vaso-constricting action and thereby help to shrink swollen and congested mucous membranes. They are of value in hay fever, sinusitis and also in acute otitis media where they decongest the mucous membrane around

the opening of the Eustachian tube and allow drainage from the middle ear. Oily solutions should not be instilled into the nose as they interfere with the action of cilia, and liquid paraffin may cause lipoid pneumonia. Drops should be instilled with the patient lying down with the head extended and breathing through the mouth. Many proprietory nasal decongestants are available, e.g. 'Endrine' 'Neophryn' 'Privine' and 'Otrivine'.

Nasal Douches (Collunaria)

Various solutions including saline and alkaline lotions are employed for cleansing the nose of copious discharges and crusts. They are best given with a douche can or a funnel attached to an appropriate length of rubber tubing. The height of the can should not be more than 30cm above the patient's head. During the procedure the patient should breathe heavily through the mouth. Sniffing solutions into the nasal cavity is inadvisable and may be followed by headaches.

Nasal sprays (Nebulae)

Watery solutions are employed and sprayed into the nasal cavities by an appropriate atomiser or used as nasal drops. Ephedrine, xylometazoline (Otrivine) and Tuamine sulphate are used for catarrhal infections of the nose and for nasal sinusitis. These substances are preferable to others e.g. adrenaline and naphazoline, which can cause severe 'rebound' congestions of the nasal sinuses.

Inhalations

Inhalations of menthol, 120 mg, 2 grains (4 or 5 small crystals) also benzoin (Tinctura benzoini composita..... Friar's balsam) 4 ml (60 minims) to 5000 ml (1 pint of boiling water, are commonly employed.

They are of value in sinusitis. Some drugs may be given by inhalation because they are absorbed into the respiratory tract, e.g. ergotamine inhalation in an aerosol spray used in migraine.

Insufflations and snuffs

These are occasionally employed, a special power insufflator being used in some cases, e.g. orthocaine (Orthoform) or benzocaine for pain, menthol snuff for nasal catarrh and posterior pituitary snuff (Dipsidin) for diabetes insipidus.

Local anaesthetics

Cocaine, which is never injected,may be used to produce local anaethesia, by plugging the nasal cavity with strips of 1.5 cm gauze soaked in the solution. Cocaine ointment may also be applied on a wool-coated probe.

Caustics

Chromic acid, trichloracetic acid, silver nitrate or the electric cautery may be applied to ulcers in the nasal mucous membrane or to a bleeding area to stop epixtaxis.

What are the symptoms of the common cold?

What might be the cause of bleeding in the posterior nasal cavity of a child?

What is the treatment for hay fever?

Which inhalations are commonly employed?

How do nasal drops work?

1. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words to make acceptable sentences.

1. Secondary (infection) ..... by group A streptococci, staphyiococci or H.influenza can lead to (complications) ..... such as sinusitis.
2. (Recurrent) ..... nose bleeding in anyone over forty requires (immediate investigation) ..... by a doctor.
3. Hay fever is an allergy to (inhalants) ..... such as pollens, (dusts) ..... and danders.
4. Antihistamines provide (temporary relief) ..... during attacks.
5. Antihistamines are taken one two or three times daily (according) ..... to their (duration of action) .....
6. Ephedrine nasal drops have a (vaso-constricting) ..... action and help to shrink swollen and (congested) ..... mucous membrane.
7. Oily solutions should not be (instilled) ..... into the nose as they (interfere) ..... with the action of cilia.
8. Watery solutions are sprayed into the nasal (cavities) ..... with an appropriate (atomiser) ..... or used as nasal drops.

2. Fill in the correct form of the missing verb in these sentences.

1. Pain or discharge from the ear (indicates) .....otitis media.
2. An antiseptic cream such as Naseptin can be (applied) ..... daily.
3. (Packing) ..... of the affected nostril with 1/4 inch strips of gauze may be (required) .....
4. The high blood pressure type of nose bleeding usually (occurs) ..... in middle age.
5. Antihistamines sometimes (produce) ..... marked drowsiness.
6. Ephedrine nasal drops help to (shrink) ..... swollen membrances.
7. Drops should be (instilled) with the patient lying down.
8. Adenoviruses are (spread) ..... by droplet infection.

3. Make statements about the following:

sinusitis: adenoviruses: desensitisation: ulcers: gauze strips: lipoid pneumonia: saline solutions: nasal congestion: Tuamine sulphate.

Using Nasal Drops

Pharmacist: Jane Stephens.

Jane: Yes, that's me.

Pharmacist: Your prescription's ready. What's your date of birth, please?

Jane: The 16th March 1942.

Pharmacist: Here are the nose drops. Have you ever used them before?

Jane: No, I haven't.

Pharmacist: It's quite easy, really. You should blow your nose first and then drop two drops into each nostril. Hold your head back as far as you can when you put the drops in. Then you must bend your head forwards and downwards to stop the solution running down your throat. Move your head slowly from side to side, breathigg in through your nose and out through your mouth, so that the solution spreads over the inside of your nose.

Jane: I see. How often should I use them?

Pharmacist: Three times a day. There's enough there for about seven days. You should never use drops longer than that because it will make the problem worse.

Jane: Yes, I understand. Thank you very much.

Pharmacist: That will be 15 crowns, please.

Jane: Here you are.

Pharmacist: Thank you.

Jane: Goodbye.

Referring a customer to the doctor

Pharmacist: Number 26.

Tom: That's me. Do you speak English?

Pharmacist: Yes, a little. What can I do to help you?

Tom: Well, I'm here on holiday, you see, and I've run out of these tablets. My doctor in England prescribed them for me. They're for a dry nose and the central heating here has aggravated it. Can I get something similar here?

Pharmacist: Yes, you can, but not without a prescription, I'm afraid. You will have to see a doctor and get a prescription.

Tom: I don't have a doctor here. Can you advise me what to do?

Pharmacist: Yes, of course. The best thing would be if . . . . .

Your customer has been prescribed the following medicines.* What instructions and advice would you give him when he collects the prescription?

Pharmacist: Stephen Waring.

Mr. Waring: Yes, that's me.

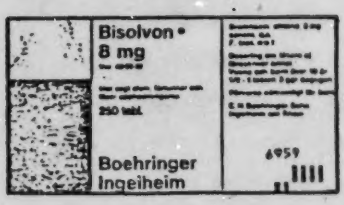
Pharmacist: What is your date of birth, please?

Mr. Waring: July 19th 1952.

Pharmacist: Fine. Your prescription's ready. There are four different medicines here. This is how you use them . . . . . .

. . . . . .

*see illustrations on following page.



Stephen Waring 520719

I tablet I-3 gånger dagligen för lösare stolen

I Kirpukeap.d. 780406

Apoteket Kronan Uppsala

Förvaras oåtkomligt för barn

Receptet förfaller Bernadotte

Stephen Waring 520719

Näsdroppar.
2-3 droppar 3 gånger dagligen eller på bomull vid näsblod

I Kirpukeap.d. 780406

..poteket Kronan Uppsala

Förvaras oåtkomligt för barn

Receptet förfaller Bernadotte

Stephen Waring 520719

Utvärtes
tunt i näsöppningen 3-4 gånger dagligen tills läkt

I Kirpukeap.d. 780406

K. Akad. Apot Kronan Uppsala

Förvaras oåtkomligt för barn.

Receptet förfaller Bernadotte

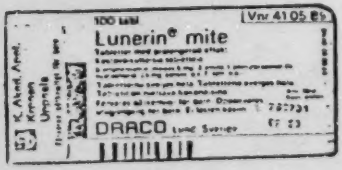
fucidin

SALVE/ SALVA 2%

Vnr. 183012

NATR. FUSIDAS 20mg

Cetanol, adeps lanae, paraffin.



Stephen Waring 520719

1-2 tabletter morgon och/eller kväll mot näs tappa. Kan ge trötthet.

SVÄLJES HELA

I Kirpukeap.d. 780406

Apoteket Kronan Uppsala

Förvaras oåtkomligt för barn

Receptet förfaller Bernadotte

An English tourist comes to your pharmacy with this prescription.

What advice would you give him?

SURNAME
Mr./Mrs./Miss Smith

Age if under 12 years
yrs. mths.

John R.
Initials and full forenames

Address 42 Carlton Close

Pharmacy stamp

Pharmacist's pack & quantity endorsement.	No. of days treatment		NP		Pricing Office use only
	N.B. Ensure dose is stated Septrin ii bd (28)				

Signature of doctor
D Rampling

Date
7/4/78

For pharmacist. No. of prescns on form

Ealing, Hammersmith & Hounslow FPC
Dr. Deidre H.E. Rampling (337713)
Gordon House,
St. Leonards Road,
W.13.
Tel. 997 9564

IMPORTANT: read notes overleaf before going to pharmacy

Form FP10Rev 76

162

(12) Implications for Teacher Training

A final word needs to be said about the teacher's level of specialised knowledge. Teaching an ESP course such as this presents problems for the teacher which cannot be adequately handled simply by the provision of "Teacher's Notes", however comprehensive they may be. In many cases the teacher will have to learn the concepts as well as the specialised lexis. He will be unfamiliar with the procedures and problems of the profession. Teachers coming in from traditional, structurally based general language courses will have to perform what Ewer (1975) calls a 'psychological somersault' into the functional approach of an ESP course.

All of these factors make teacher orientation and teacher training of vital importance.

The successful teaching of an ESP course for pharmacists requires effort on the part of course administrators to provide technical background, observation and pharmacy visits, examples of protocol and specialised pedagogic training. It implies effort on the part of the teacher to respond to the students' needs, to take a constructive and creative approach to the conceptual, linguistic and methodological demands of the course.

Simulation For Air-Ticketing Trainees with Special Attention to the Development of a Link between the Formal Classroom Situation and the Simulation

F. Chambers

These ideas developed from my experience when teaching English to airline trainees who were to become ticketing agents. Inherent in the idea of E.S.P. is the idea of limitation, and it is the existence of constraints that makes it possible in certain circumstances to make use of simulations in the hope that these will bear some useful degree of resemblance to the real situation. Simulation thus would seem to have a number advantages in this context, not the least of these being that:

a) the 'depth of role' is suitable,

b) in this circumscribed area there is a relatively high degree of predictability,

c) simulations are relatively simple and inexpensive to set up,

d) there is little likelihood of learners suffering from 'identity loss' if the simulations are introduced correctly.

All these points will be considered below, but the last of these raises a second major point, that of the necessity for a link between the more traditional lesson and the simulation. Again we will attempt to justify this later on, but for now we can simply note as sufficient reason for further investigation Inbar's (1968) comment that 'the pre-game attitudes of the student are very important.'

Thus first, a typical E.S.P. course for airline trainees, based upon an actually existing course, will be described to provide the constraints of time and material, then the advantages and disadvantages of the introduction of a series of simulations will be briefly considered and finally there will be a description of one idea for linking the more traditional lesson and the simulation; a justification

of the necessity for such a link; some psychological underpinning, and then further details such as material required and timing.

The Course

Aim: to teach airline trainees English suitable for their job as airline ticketing agents at different stations throughout the world, English being the *linga franca* of air travel.

Objectives: to enable the trainee politely and effectively,

a) to answer customer enquiries regarding
   (i) ticketing details (ii) flight details
   (iii) airport facilities (iv) baggage enquiries
   and other job - associated tasks.

b) to complete reservations including eliciting and noting the correct information from passengers

c) to complete confirmations including telephoning confirmation to a central computer

d) to write clearly in Roman alphabetic script in order to complete relevant documents, e.g. tickets, bag-tags, and for note-taking

e) to be able to hold a short polite conversation of a general nature with a customer.

Duration:

39 weeks

5 days per week

6 hours per day

Students:

18 - 20 years old. The students had been taught English in their secondary schools but had been very poorly taught. All were at pre-intermediate level, many were faux debutants.

Course Outline

The course had two main phases

Phase I Weeks 1 - 12. A period of intensive English intended to ensure the attainment of a suitable 'threshold level' for more advanced ESP work.

Phase II The remaining weeks, when the 'General English' of phase I would be continued for approximately 1 - 2 hours per day but when, in addition, further subjects would be introduced intended to develop language associated with aspects of their jobs e.g.

Marketing Conversation: based on typical procedures that the trainee has to be able to carry out such as reservation, cancellation, enquiries.

Marketing Skills: the development of appropriate technical knowledge and the associated language such as use of the radio alphabet, airport flight codings, ticket completion etc.

Thus a typical course tends to be highly segmented, classroom orientated and rather formal. The heavy compartmentalization, the emphasis on written work, the lack of attention to features at the level of communicative competence and in general the classroom atmosphere tend not to be entirely appropriate. The necessity for the

attainment of a 'threshold level' (phase I) seems reasonable on the same grounds as those suggested by the Council of Europe. The necessity for segmentation also seems justifiable in view of the complexity of the 'parts'. However it is reasonable to suggest that it is necessary, after the individual parts have been learned in isolation, to put the parts together again - not just to show how they fit together, but because in the fitting together, new dimensions, both quantitative and qualitative, develop, as will be discussed below.

The essence of the suggestions here, then, is that skills may to some point be learned in isolation, but it is necessary for them to be re-integrated. Furthermore the 'gap' between the more formal compartmentalization and the new less formal setting must be bridged if the teaching is to be maximally effective.

Simulation

These criticisms of a 'typical' course seem to be particularly suitable to being met by simulation that would,

a) reduce compartmentalization

b) reduce the emphasis from written work towards some kind of multi-skill approach

c) increase the attention paid to communicative competence with its emphasis on appropriacy.

Furthermore it would be relatively cheap and simple to implement,

i) the physical scenario, e.g. the office situation typical of this role, is easily predicted and replicated,

ii) typical job situations likely to arise are relatively easy to predict. (This is not to suggest that all situations can be foreseen, but that a certain set of 'core situations' detailed below can be developed - to which most other situations can be represented as a variation on a basic type.)

iii) there will be relevant grammatical and lexical forms that can be assigned to these situations as having a high probability of occurence in the given situation.

iv) the depth of role (Littlewood 1975) is suitable for simulation. Of the five roles determined by Littlewood in terms of 'ease with which the roles can be voluntarily adopted or changed...

1) inherent or biological roles ...

2) ascribed roles such as class or nationality ...

3) acquired roles ... one's 'status in life' and all the trappings that contribute, such as professional norms, which likewise are strong determinants of

identity, but can be changed.

4) actional roles such as purchaser, negotiator ...

5) functional roles such as offering help.

Whether the role to be adopted by the trainee is at level 3) or some combination of 4) and 5) is irrelevant. The point is that it is not at the 'deep levels' of 1) and 2) "where acquisition is a deep-seated process ... and Laubert's (1967) theory of 'anomie' ... would apply ... it does not seem to be either realistic or advisable for language teachers to aim at personality change." (Littlewood p.203 1975)

The roles to be enacted in these simulations are not 'artificial' in the sense of having little likelihood of ever being realised by the role-taker. The roles represent the trainee's job situation and the real role they will be adopting in a short time. As a result there is little chance of rejection by the student of the role as 'just a game'.

Before proceeding to the actual simulation a brief consideration of general advantages and disadvantages of simulation may be of interest.

Advantages

Simulation may have several advantages relevant to this particular course:

i) All four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) with both receptive and productive modes can be developed along with different sub-skills of each mode, e.g. writing, note-taking, form-filling etc.

ii) Skills are used simultaneously, i.e. in a non-compartmentalized fashion,

iii) More learners are more active more of the time. It seems reasonable to expect a much better student:teacher speech ratio than in the formal classroom situation.

iv) Teacher dependency is reduced (see below).

v) Motivation, it is hoped, will be higher, because,

a) it may be diverting compared to routine classroom teaching if not used too often

b) it has an impression of immediate relevancy for the student

vi) Problems of identity-loss experienced by language-learners, as suggested by Guiora et al (1972) would not be aggravated in this 'game situation'.

vii) Paralinguistic features may have an opportunity to develop and be observed.

viii) Feedback from linguistic and paralinguistic features is more realistic. Success will be more clearly dependent on overall behaviour and failure, although regrettable, will be comparatively harmless and rectifiable. Further, the process of breakdown in communication, occurring over a period of time, will be experienced by the learner. This may enable potential breakdowns to be recognized before their occurrence and appropriate recovery strategies to be developed (see E.Hatch, Discourse Analysis, in Hatch 1978).

ix) The teacher by controlling the scenarios should be able to influence the language functions and situations being practised.

x) The student has the opportunity to test himself and his

ideas, permit some originality and observe possible results of his own actions.

It must be recognized, however, that simulations do face certain problems. Briefly, these are;

i) Problems for the teacher in noting and delivering appropriate pedagogical feedback to students following simulation. This represents a considerable problem for the teacher in:

   a) noting the error

   b) being aware of the source of the error

   c) deciding whether a learner's particular communication strategy which is successful in avoiding possible communication breakdown should be corrected for grammatical, lexical or other fault (Shapiro and Hatch 1978)

ii) An inherent problem of simulation is that because the relevant situation appears to be developing there is a presumption that learning (and particularly learning of the required type) is occurring. This is not necessarily true.

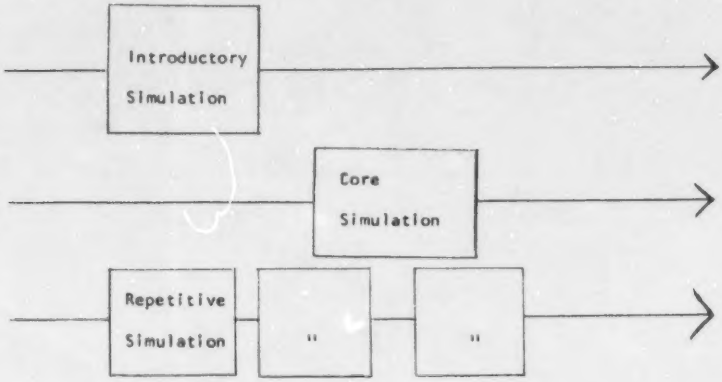
iii) Abt (1968) suggests that the reality of simulation raises the possibility of trainees "learning spurious analogies and overrating the predictability of events". Discussion of feedback at class-level may reduce this. Furthermore as we have noted above, events in the kind of situation envisaged here can be fairly predictable.

iv) How far can learners (as non-native speakers) profitably be allowed to interact with one another in simulated situations, and how great is the danger of distortion

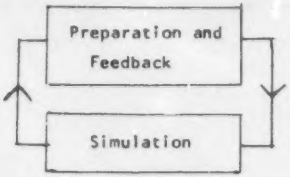
(of gestural feedback, for example)? (Walmsley p.333 1976)

Timing of Simulations

Simulation would occur during phase II. Armstrong and Taylor (1970) suggest three possible alternatives when setting up a simulation.



Type (iii), for improvement, is being considered here, and is of a circular nature with appropriate staging (see below)



The simulation period generally takes about 30-45 minutes (see below). Of course feedback and preparation times will vary, but it would not be expected to present more than one simulation period a week in the course of the 30 hour week.

Providing the setting

A relatively high degree of authenticity is necessary and easily achieved. The 'office' is relatively easy to simulate, demanding only one room with ten or so desks (a typical number for a large ticketing office), flight guides, timetables, schedules, dummy tickets etc. In fact the only feature difficult to replicate authentically is the telephone system and noise interference typical of any large airport, though these could be easily provided by recording.

Allotment of roles

This will depend upon the size of the group. The group is divided into sub-groups of either two or three. Essential, of course, are:

a) 'the ticket agent'

b) 'the customer'

and a third role may be introduced if either numbers are large or an 'observer' is felt to be appropriate to regulate the actions of the other two.

c) the supervisor.

Within any one period roles can be interchanged (see below)

The scenario

- is controlled by instructions provided by the teacher, written on a card for the 'customer'. He initially is provided with a card stating the flight details he is requesting.

Destination: Cairo	Date: 28 April
Class: Economy	No. of seats: 3
One way	

This has certain advantages:

a) it takes a largely extraneous area of responsibility away from the trainee, so that he does not have to concern himself with details of how, where and when he will travel, and to prevent too complex a schedule being demanded which would only distract the 'agent' from the linguistic problems. One of the problems of language teaching is that the content of the message being communicated is artificial. As well as introducing a lack of authenticity this also means that frequently the learner's mind is distracted from 'how' to say something by thoughts of 'what' to say.

b) it enables the teacher to control the degree of complexity, particularly of the job skills involved.

The agent, of course, has all normal flight details such as schedules. The 'customer' goes to the 'agent' at the desk and together they simulate the normal procedure, observed if required by the supervisor.

Later as the trainee's competence and confidence increases, greater freedom can be allowed to the 'customer' in deciding details such as flight destination etc.

Within any one simulation period, which as noted lasts 30-45 minutes, at least two simulations should occur with the trainees exchanging the roles, the 'agent' becoming the 'customer' and so on. During this time the teacher will be present to provide information if it is requested but will generally maintain a low profile. Both the 'agent' and the 'supervisor', if one is present,

must take notes of all relevant information concerning the enquiry (see below p175) After each simulation he will check with the 'supervisor' who will have noted any omissions. The notes produced by the 'agent' of the details of the enquiry provide a useful check. As the intention is to emphasise the communicative aspect of the simulation the teacher will attempt to avoid interrupting or correcting during the simulation. Afterwards during discussion questions can be considered and improvements attempted but this is not, in fact, simple (see p. 169).

Simulations can be controlled to some degree for complexity. Early simulations can be closely controlled regarding the procedural complexity. For instance the 'agent' can expect a simple enquiry. Later simulations may, however, be much freer and the requests can become increasingly random and complext. (see below 180).

The Link

The intention here is not really to consider simulation. The advantages of simulation are, I believe, fairly obvious. The main area of interest here lies in providing a strategy to link the original classroom situation with the simulation situation.

Reasons for requiring a Link

If all the benefits of a simulation programme are to be obtained, it is, I suggest, frequently useful to provide some linking strategy between this and the prior, relatively formal classroom situation. As G.Fielding and T.Wheeler noted at the 1978 Conference on Language and Communication Skills at Sheffield Polytechnic in a paper on 'The Use of Simulation Games in teaching

communication' a single presentation of simulation is if anything counter-productive because of the 'atypical mode'. It is the purpose of a link to prepare learners for the atypical mode and to provide links backward to the formal class situation and forward to the simulation, and thus avoid 'pedagogic shock' because of the number of dissimilarities which may lead to rejection by the students. It is possible to suggest several reasons why this may occur,

(i) The student may feel insecure without the props typical of the classroom (e.g. text books, teacher's guidance) and with the different mode of expression i.e. oral rather than 'written'.

(ii) The anonymity of the classroom is largely removed

(iii) Probably typical of the reason why a linking procedure is required is the necessity for the student to develop a new concept of what is involved in language learning. Many new features of the communicative act are now necessary e.g. proxemics, paralinguistics, features which previously played a minimal role. This muitiplicity introduced too quickly may be confusing.

(iv) The student may initially have little faith in the new technique, particularly if in his experience i.e. within his own culture, higher status is given to more traditional techniques.

(v) Simulation tends to demand a much higher rate of overt production of language by the student, thereby demanding greater spontaneity and creativity. It may

require gentle 'leading out' if the student is not to reject the whole technique from shyness or some sense of inadequacy. Inbar (1968) suggested that "the pre-game attitude of the student is very important" and research with 'Consumer Game" Zaltman (1968) suggested that "extent of game participation affected the degree of learning" (in Armstrong and Taylor 1970).

Initiation of the Link

For these reasons it is felt that it may be necessary to move the trainee into a simulation situation in a manner which predisposes him towards the new technique. Thus the next question is, if the link is justified, how can it be implemented in an effective, simple and interesting manner? The suggested solution is to join two other exercises that already exist as part of the course in a manner that will predispose the trainees towards simulation.

The first of these existing exercises is the rote-learning of eight 'essential' pieces of information that are necessary for nearly all airline ticketing procedures. These are the customer's:

1) Name
2) Destination
3) Number of seats
4) One-way / round trip
5) Address and telephone number
6) Date of travel
7) First class / economy
8) Nationality

Normally these are rote-learned early in phase II and so by the time the preparation are made for simulation (see below for timing) they are already well-known.

The second exercise is that of note-taking. Note-taking as a sub-skill of writing already has a place on the syllabus as it

A whole series of Bransford et al articles associated with assimilation theory (JVLVB XI 1972) notes "presentation of appropriate semantic context had a marked effect on both comprehension rating and recall. Comprehension ratings ... were relatively low when students did not receive the appropriate context before..." (p.717).

If in our taped dialogues the passenger's response is seen as the material to be comprehended, the agent's question could then be seen as the primer of the appropriate semantic context and as such would be carefully noted by the listener. Frase (1970) implies this when he equates a question with 'an orientating device (is) a verbal stimulus which disposes the learner to respond to certain aspects of text". (my emphasis)

If this is the case - that in order to facilitate note-taking the learner pays close attention to the agent's speech - then the situation is consonant with one where incidental learning of the agent's speech by the trainee can occur in the most suitable circumstances.

Learning is incidental if it occurs in the absence of instruction and presumably without the intent of the learner.. "Intent per se has little or no influence on the amount learned under given conditions of exposure. The intent to learn is typically found to be a positive factor because it serves to activate responses to materials which are favourable to acquisition. If the same responses can be aroused in an incidental learner by means of appropriate orientating task there is no evidence for a residual effect of intent" (Postman and Keppel p.37 - my emphasis.)

is frequently required by ticketing agents for instance when speaking on the telephone, or when eliciting information from a customer during an enquiry.

The joining of these two can provide the link to simulation. Briefly, the technique involves taping a 'standard model dialogue' that could normally be used by the agent to elicit the required information from the customer. Students listen to the tape and note down this information. In short, work such as that by Bransford et al (see above p.176) suggests that questions in the dialogue will be used as orientating devices and therefore will be carefully attended. This careful attention should lead to incidental learning. As the material thus learned is based on material required for the simulation the initial learning for the simulation will occur.

The link and some experimental support

The trainees in the classroom are presented with a series of taped dialogues between 'an agent' and 'a customer' typical of the type of conversation heard in a ticketing office, and asked to note down all essential information. Although in theory to do this it would be sufficient only to listen to the customer's responses, it is likely (see below) that the trainees will also pay close attention to the agent's eliciting question to provide clues and cues concerning the forthcoming response, and thus increase the likelihood of the information being noted correctly, i.e. the questions provide cues (a context) for the listener to understand the response.

Generally, experimental evidence suggests that information received is more complete when the listener has been 'primed'.

However, it could be argued "although available evidence suggests there is no discontinuity between intentional and incidental learning ... instructions represent a highly effective method of activating those responses to the stimulus materials which are essential for acquisition" (Ibid p.37) as the work of Frase (1970) also suggests. In counter-argument it is suggested that in this case the absence of instruction, i.e. the reduction in teacher dependency, in a situation where within a few months the trainee will be in a job situation, compensates for any reduction in efficiency from specific orientation.

All this, in terms of classroom activity, means that when a trainee who is note-taking hears a taped dialogue, the question:

'When would you like to fly, Sir?'

predisposes him to expect a date in response. The careful noting of the question should ensure that incidental learning of the agent's speech will occur. As the speech is that used in the simulation, the student is prepared for the simulation. Even if the speech is not wholly learned, when the topic is discussed later in the feedback phase, it is hoped the students would have a greater disposition towards providing appropriate answers themselves, as they would have been provided with so many models. Indeed partial learning may even be more desirable as then the trainees responses may have some degree of originality.

Stages and timing for implementation into the general syllabus

The link may be presented during the daily 1½ hour skills lesson, preferably at least 3 times a week (alternate days?) initially for about ½ hour, over a period of 2 - 3 weeks. This seems a reasonable compromise between over-presentation when boredom will reduce attention

levels, and thus incidental learning and under-presentation where incidental learning would be reduced for obvious reasons. In the end, of course, it is flexible enough to be dependent on the teacher's judgement. The link, as noted, is based on the two pieces of work with one of which the student is already acquainted (the essential information) the other which he has to learn (note-taking).

Note-taking technique, the selection of essential information and its noting down in a short, simple, well-arranged display with methods of simplifying orthographic details, may initially have to be taught particularly for those students who have only recently been introduced to Roman script. Once these mechanical skills have been introduced, the link can be introduced by means of exercises practice in note-taking. Once the students have grasped the essentials then the teacher can proceed to using the taped dialogues.

The Taped Dialogues and Control of Complexity

The intention would be to have a series of tapes for note-taking practice concerned with different procedures and of varying complexity.

Initially the tapes would be quite short - less than two minutes. With listening to the tapes, the note-taking, discussion and marking and usually a final run-though of the tape for checking, even a 2 minute tape can take 20 minutes of a 1½ hour lesson. Variation on the tape can occur at several levels. Procedural and linguistic complexity can be maintained whilst changing the order of presentation of the material. So, for instance, in one tape the name of the passenger may be presented first and in another the destination. Changes in information ordering do not in fact represent any change in complexity but they do ensure the maintenance of a high level of attention. The maintenance

of a high level of awareness is critical because it is through this that the preparation for simulation, the incidental learning, will subconsciously occur.

Basically, complexity within a series of tapes can be varied on two levels.

a) the linguistic level - in this case the definition of linguistic complexity is quite simple. Complexity is increased by,

   i) increasing the speed of delivery

   ii) varying syntactic structures and lexis

   iii) introducing different accents and registers (and perhaps passenger stereotypes)

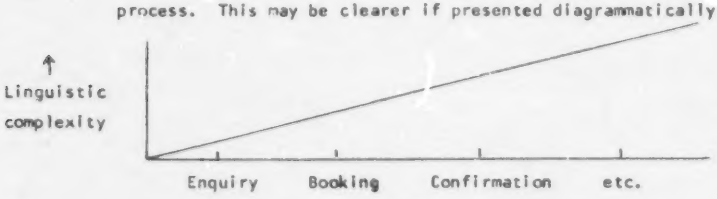
   iv) increasing the mean length of utterances.

Any one of these factors can be varied either independently or jointly.

b) procedural complexity - a process can be made from enquiry through to booking, confirmation, amendment, cancellation and so on.

The level of complexity on the twin axes of linguistic complexity and procedural process can be manipulated either in parallel or independently of each other.

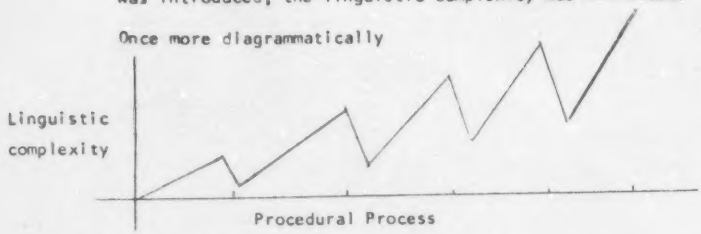
(i) Complexity would increase in parallel if the increase in linguistic complexity proceeded throughout the procedural process. This may be clearer if presented diagrammatically:



(ii) Independent manipulation of linguistic features and the procedural process would occur if, as each new procedure

was introduced, the linguistic complexity was minimised.

Once more diagrammatically



thus introducing a cyclical aspect.

Of the two, the latter would seem to have most advantages.

(1) any procedural problems can initially be considered without the added complexity of increased linguistic complexity.

(2) students of different abilities have to be provided for. It is preferable that all students, regardless of ability, have at least the basic ability to carry on a conversation for all procedures,

a) in order to be able to function at some, at least, minimal level of complexity.

b) to have a basis from which each trainee can develop at his own pace. If linguistic difficulty increased parallel to procedural process, trainees of lesser linguistic ability may not be able to cope with any but the first few procedures.

(3) In any case, there is no isomorphic relationship between stages in procedure and linguistic complexity. Language of later procedures is no more inherently complex than that of earlier procedures.

(4) The cyclical aspect of the second pattern provides opportunity for revision.

For these reasons the cyclical pattern is recommended.

It is, of course, possible to go straight into simulations after the note-taking link, and the decision whether to do this or not will depend upon the teacher who will be able to judge the students' preparedness. However, a period in the classroom of bringing together alternative versions of the same question, some from the text, some from the tapes, and some possibly original, may be useful. This may be more fruitful than direct entry to the simulation. Firstly, as noted, it will indicate to the teacher the students' level of preparedness. Secondly, points that were not clear and alternative suggestions could be discussed. Eventually the trainee should go into the simulation fairly confident of the linguistic content and free to concentrate on other necessary features of the communicative act. In either case, whether the entry to the simulation is direct or interrupted by more formal discussion, the incidental learning that has occurred should provide a suitable basis for the next step - the simulation.

The implementation of the link to simulation via note-taking appears to have several advantages.

i) The link can be initiated without any explanation as it is already justified at other levels e.g. note-taking is an existing part of the syllabus. Other approaches would presumably involve activities that had no other justification other than as an introduction to simulation. As such it would be necessary to justify the activity on the basis of some future benefit. It is suggested that immediate utility is generally a better motivator than deferred utility.

ii) Note-taking has to be taught and practised at some time - the inclusion of it as the link to the simulation is economical in terms of time.

iii) Note-taking easily adapts to provide the necessary link. Already, for instance one requirement of simulation is met - all students are actively involved.

iv) Students appear well-disposed towards note-taking via tapes. If not over-used, tapes are seen as an attractive alternative to other activities. Further, this mode of presentation may be justifiable on the groundthat the use of tapes is analagous to, and therefore a good introduction to, telephone and intercom techniques - or even p.a. systems common to airports.

In conclusion, it is suggested that the inclusion of a series of simulations would be useful features in the course, enabling students to gain experience more typical of the work they will meet in the job situation. The simulation situation is simple and easily understood, - and seen as relevant by the trainees. Both the simulation and the link are relatively inexpensive, undemanding on resources, simple to set up and reduce teacher-dependency - an important consideration for learners who will in a very short while be in the real job situation.

The introduction of a link to the simulation is justified on the grounds that it will increase the effectiveness of the simulation at little extra expense in terms of time or money, as it already has to be taught.

AN EVALUATION OF MATERIALS USED IN ADULT LITERACY SCHEMES, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF READING SKILLS

Linda Gorman

1. Introduction

In 1975 the Adult Literacy Resource Agency (ALRA) was set up under the aegis of the National Institute of Adult Education, and its function was to administer a Government grant given to local authorities and voluntary organisations to establish and maintain Adult Literacy schemes. In the same year the Bullock Report - "A Language for Life" - was published, and it devoted a section to Adult Illiteracy where needs and possible solutions were discussed. The general recommendation was made that:

> "Provision for the tuition of adult illiterates and semi-literates should be greatly increased....." (p.515)

These two developments have been quoted as examples of the growing interest shown in the question of "adult literacy" in the past few years - an interest which continues to grow, and which commands the increasing attention of educational organisations, publishing companies and the media. The topic of "adult literacy" is a vast and complex one, about which much has been written, but little is really known. This is true particularly in terms of how adults learn, why some fail to learn, i.e. the whole question of what is meant by "illiteracy" and "literacy". Connected with this last point is the estimation of the size of the problem in England: the number of people labelled "adult illiterates" will obviously depend on how that term is defined. Most writers working in the field quote the figure of two million as being the number of adult illiterates at present in this country. This figure is taken as being the minimum by the British Association of Settlements (1974) for example, who argue that the six per cent of the adult population that it represents are labelled as "illiterate" only on the basis of a very limited definition of literacy.

This paper aims to deal mainly with materials used in the teaching of adult illiterates, and will attempt to classify and evaluate these materials. There are a number of pertinent issues, however, which must be touched upon briefly before such an evaluation can take place. The questions of defining literacy, an analysis of needs, and "readability" measures will be considered, following by a brief discussion of the relationship between Adult Literacy, ESL/EFL and ESP. The material to be considered will then be contextualised, followed by a discussion of two very important issues in the evaluation of materials; namely the authenticity of materials, and the question of the importance of reading and how people actually read. The justification for singling out these two issues will be made clear when they are discussed. Following this will be a section on the classification and evaluation of materials used in adult literacy work. Finally, suggestions will be made and examples put forward for ways of dealing with the specific problem of teaching adults to comprehend and extract meaning from a text.

II. Actual and potential parallels between adult literacy and ESP

This paper is concerned with the question of adult literacy, with particular reference to the teaching of reading, but some comment should be made on the important connections between this and the teaching of EFL, ESL and ESP.

Of course, there are certain significant differences between people learning English as a foreign or second language (for whatever purpose) and an adult who is semi-literate in his mother tongue. Aural discrimination and production is one such difference, as well as more general factors such as reasons for wanting to learn.

However, there are important links continually being forged between these areas of language teaching ranging from the general pattern of approach to syllabus construction to methodological procedure and materials design. It is possible to discern two main aspects of language learning and teaching which the areas of language work listed above have in common.

The first is the recent general move towards a "functional" approach to language, and the educational implications of this. In all kinds of mother-tongue and EFL teaching there are obviously differences remaining in approach and use of a particular language theory, yet these areas share a common underlying assumption that the learner is a competent native speaker of a language and possesses a certain knowledge of that language. This competence can then be used effectively whether the student learns a second or foreign language, or is developing a better command of his first language.

The second common theme running through the different areas of English language teaching is variously labelled "Study skills" (EFL/ESP) or "Language across the curriculum" (mother tongue teaching). These two terms are essentially describing the same thing - the relation of language to subjects outside the conventional "English lesson". The compartmentalisation of subjects in schools, leading to the isolation of English from the rest of the curriculum, has been criticised by the Bullock report. In mother tongue teaching, particularly in secondary schools, the English department is now increasingly seen as being at the centre of the curriculum (or spreading "across" it) and performing a greater service role than before.

It has long been the case that ESP teaching has recognised the importance of an analysis of language needs of the students in relation to particular subject areas, or of the skills required to perform effectively in those areas. This analysis has been done by such means as scrutinising "teacher talk" and the language of classroom interaction, and the analysis of written texts to be used by the student.

In terms of reading, both mother tongue teaching (child and adult levels) and EFL/ESP can profitably make use of such strategies as prediction and an awareness of lexical and syntactic cues to help students master the technique of decoding and interpreting a text. This kind of work is vital in both areas if the student is to move beyond a mere understanding of the literal meaning of a text. It is these important and complex further stages that seem to be the main area of need in adult literacy in particular.

III. Nature and extent of adult illiteracy

Mention has been made of the figure of two million to denote the number of adult illiterates in England yet is is impossible to arrive at an accurate figure because of the lack of adequate centrally collected information on adult illiteracy. Nationally, adult literacy schemes involve over 35,000 volunteer tutors, almost all engaged in the one to one teaching relationship that characterises adult literacy work. All teaching is done on the one to one basis, mostly in a class in an educational centre. At each centre there is a paid and qualified tutor-organiser, who advises and supervises the volunteers and their students. Both volunteers and students became involved in the adult literacy scheme for a wide variety of reasons, and became aware of the existing opportunities by extensive publicity which included notices

in the local paper and public places, and stickers in such locations as the library, Post Office and local shops.

In terms of student demand, less than 10% of students coming forward in N.E.Essex are unable to read at all, and the greatest need is for improvement of both reading and spelling, rather than basic instruction. Gorman (1977) in his research paper on needs in adult literacy, has commented that a survey conducted into the scheme in N.E.Essex showed a number of similarities between that scheme and many others operating throughout England and Wales; in terms of organisation, types of student and student motivation.

This leads to the question of what illiteracy is, which must be answered before an effective needs analysis and possible solutions to the problems involved in adult literacy can be arrived at. Most work in this field uses three categories, or levels, of literacy: basic literacy; functional literacy, and cultural literacy. However, there is no general consensus on what these terms mean and the BBC for example, (1977) use a different set of categories. These are: illiterate, semi-literate and functionally literate. The first category refers to people with a reading age of below 7 years. To be semi-literate a person will have a reading age of between 7 and 13 years, and to be functionally literate means to have a reading age of 13 and above. This last category follows the UNESCO definition of functional literacy, outlined as follows:-

> "A person is functionally literate when he has command of reading skills that permit him to go about his daily activities successfully on the job, or to move about society normally with comprehension of the usual printed expressions and message he encounters." (A Right to Read.p5)

The correspondence between these categories and actual texts shows very clearly the level of reading skill needed by an adult if he is to function effectively in our society. For example, a reading age of 16.5 years means being able to cope with a text from a quality newspaper, while a Government leaflet on how to obtain the Family Income Supplement requires a reading age of approximately 17.0 years.

How useful are such definitions of literacy, reading ages, readability measures and the like? They need to be used with care, for they may lead to attempts to fit students into existing categories of attainment rather than looking at each student individually and formulating a "needs profile" for each one. Why not arrive at a "definition" of literacy after looking at real students - their levels and their needs? It would then be possible to move forward from there to the wider question of generalised categories. In N.E.Essex the organisers of the adult literacy scheme do just that - a highly individualised approach is taken, in terms of assessment and testing as well as in relation to a definition of literacy. This also includes a sensitive appraisal of the other variables at work when the non-reader is an adult.

It is not the purpose of this paper to undertake a detailed needs analysis, for this has already been done. (Gorman,1977). But one or two points arising from that analysis are relevant to the present study, as they concern materials used for adult literacy teaching. Gorman notes that most of the work done in relation to an analysis of adult needs has concentrated on an examination of existing occupational patterns; although this concentration does in fact correlate with one of the most commonly expressed reasons given by adult illiterates for joining

a class - the desire to maintain or improve their employment prospects.

Gorman cites three levels of need, arrived at after a survey, namely: recorded, expressed and observed. He goes on to suggest that it may be possible to generalise needs in terms of a group of learners and thus questions the assumption that all teaching in adult literacy must be of a one to one nature. This seems a valid question and it may well be that needs of adult learners can be generalised at one level removed from the particular one to one situation. However, most teaching in adult literacy does take place in the one to one manner and this has often been justified in terms of the delicate nature of the teaching relationship and the complex psychological and socio-psychological factors at work. Gorman's suggestion of a "common core" of content followed by relevant individualisation and specialisation is an interesting one (and has parallels in most ESL/EFL teaching situations), but this project assumes that the materials looked at will be used in the conventional one to one teaching relationship.

When adult literacy volunteers and organisers in N.E.Essex were asked about desired improvements to the scheme, they expressed the need for materials that could be used to teach more advanced reading skills, particularly reading for meaning. This expressed wish echoes what Gorman has to say about existing adult literacy material. He describes the paucity of adult level materials and goes on to elaborate on the great lack of materials that -

> "... incorporated reading tasks analogous to those adults were likely to encounter 'in daily life'." (p.1)

A similar point was made by the Bullock Report. (pp. 282-3)

IV. Contextualisation of material

In the adult literacy scheme in operation in N.E.Essex, a wide variety of materials are used. These materials can be broken down into four broad categories -

1. "Home-made" material such as worksheets, scrapbooks, exercises, etc, newsletters such as "Moving On". Such material is produced either by tutor-organisers or individual volunteer tutors or by students.
2. "Authentic" texts such as magazines, newspapers, leaflets, application forms, instruction manuals etc.
3. Commercially-produced material specifically for adolescents with reading difficulties: "Topliners", "Disco", Manxman" series, for example.
4. Commercially-produced material specifically for adults with reading difficulties.

It is this fourth category that I have chosen to focus upon and which will be further categorised later. The material in this category is produced for a specific purpose and receives much of the attention and publicity given to adult literacy teaching. Many people, for example, see adult literacy as being synonymous with the BBC programmes and accompanying materials, although this is far from being the case. For these reasons I have decided to concentrate on such materials. Within this broad category I have further delineated the area I propose to look at, namely how such materials deal with the problem of reading above an elementary level. Reading, rather than writing or spelling, seems to emerge as the greatest problem in most of the needs analyses undertaken and fluent reading for comprehension and meaning seems to be the level where most material is required. As mentioned earlier, most students who come forward for adult literacy help need improvement in the basic skills.

In terms of reading most can recognise letters and individual words, but need a great deal of help from then onwards if they are to reach the general level of "functional literacy", and read the extracts quoted earlier in this paper.

V. How do people read?

There are four main approaches to the teaching of reading to children, all of which have certain inadequacies in relation to adults learning to read. The most elementary approach is the Alphabetic method which is now very rarely used for children because of its drawbacks.

The Phonic method and the Look and Say method are the two most often used ways of teaching reading to children and they represent very different approaches to the process of learning to read. Phonics entails learning sounds represented by letters and blending them into words, but has the disadvantage that it emphasises word recognition at the expense of reading for meaning. "Look and Say" involves memorisation of words by virtue of their shape, and builds up an association between words and pictures. Two main drawbacks emerge here - a good sight memory is required and the method cannot cope with words not previously encountered. Finally, there is the "Language experience" approach which uses the background and language of the student as a basis for material. This is really concerned with the improvement of reading skills and seems particularly suitable for adult literacy work.

What does a skilled and fluent reader actually do and how can his skills and strategies be taught? He will not read every word in a text, because he will have a certain knowledge and expectation of word order, sentence construction and paragraph organisation. He plays what Goodman (1967)

calls the "psychological guessing game", using various strategies to decode the text he encounters. Smith (1971) has shown how the competent reader does not convert print into sounds but uses all kinds of clues to make sense of the text. These clues include visual ones, but are also taken from the context, grammar and syntax of a passage. The skilled reader will use all these clues to predict what is coming next in a text, both in terms of syntax and vocabulary and meaning.

Such research and its findings stress that reading is an active process rather than a mere passive skill and involves the reader in a careful analysis of a text. Goodman has emphasised that reading instruction in one's mother-tongue should centre on strategies of comprehension; a point echoed by Mackay and Mountford (1978) in relation to reading in a language other than the mother-tongue. They argue that students learning to read texts in English must be taught a "strategy of reading" involving scanning for broad context and extracting essential information. To read efficiently, they continue, a student has to both perceive and interpret the lexical meaning of a passage, and its grammatical and rhetorical structure.

Much of what Mackay and Mountford argue has been discussed by Widdowson in various articles and papers. In "Gradual Approximation" (1976), Widdowson uses the concept of "discourse decomposition" to describe how students move from words, sentences and statements up into discourse when learning to interpret a text. This skill of interpretation is vitally important and has particular relevance for adult literacy. Interpretation is composed of the twin aspects comprehension and composition and will be facilitated when writing practice is based on the text used for reading. This tactic is often employed by adult

literacy tutors to ennance their student's understanding of how a text is built up.

Reference to Widdowson raises the question of "authenticity" in relation to adult literacy reading materials, for he has written on this subject at length. Although his work has been concerned with EFL material, his views constitute a useful starting point for a discussion of authenticity and adult literacy material.

VI. Authenticity

It is always stressed in the literature on adult literacy that the aim must be to equip adults to cope effectively with the demands made upon them by society - a society which assumes that the adults within it are literate and can therefore be approached, questioned and can communicate via the printed word. A letter from an Adult Literacy Tutor/Organiser in a recent issue of the A.L.R.A. newsletter (1976. No.6) highlights this problem. Printed documents collected at his centre include tax-forms, licence applications, savings certificate forms, packets of soup, food tin labels and rat poison instructions. An analysis of this relatively small amount of printed matter shows the high degree of reading skill required to decipher it all and the writer argues for a more general awareness of how such stringent requirements place demands on all adults in our society. He uses the common example of the Highway Code to demonstrate how such an awareness still does not exist, and concludes that he has resorted to translating the new Highway Code into "readable English".

Widdowson's position on authenticity is that the ability to comprehend an authentic text is an aim to be achieved by "appropriate intervening stages",

involving modified language samples from the language of the target situation (1979) Such intervening stages follow the principle of "gradual approximation" which provides initial texts and exercises within the learner's limited linguistic competence and then -

> "gradually realises its communicative potential by making appeal to the other kinds of knowledge that the learner has."

To this end the teacher should construct her own materials according to the level of the students, rather than merely simplifying an actual text.

The concept of using the "other kinds of knowledge that the learner has", although proposed by Widdowson in the ESL/EFL context, seems to be salient to the adult literacy situation. With reference to the problematic Highway Code, for example, a student who has driven will know something of the actual physical process of driving and will have executed many of the manoeuvres mentioned in the text of the Code. He will be able to talk about these manoeuvres and about driving in general and will generally be cognisant of the transport and driving environment. He may also be able to represent certain aspects of the Code in a simplified diagrammatic fashion - how to turn right from a narrow road, for example. Capitalising on all this knowledge - actual and potential - will surely aid the learning process.

However, it seems that "flexibility" must be the keynote for materials and teaching methods in the adult literacy situation - as in any other teaching situation. In the case of adult literacy, I believe that a simplified text can be of value particularly where such a text is compiled by tutor and student together, therefore actively involving

the student in the process. A simplified text has the advantages that sentence lengths can be altered so as to be manageable by the student and difficult words and phrases can be changed. In addition to this, of course, the tutor can construct the "gradually approximated" exercises referred to earlier. It has been suggested by McFarlane (1976) that one way of providing adult-centred reading material is to use a text dictated by the student himself. He points out that this is not as easy as it may sound and can present problems of it's own but it may be one way of arriving at a simplified text using the learner's existing knowledge. McFarlane makes another interesting point, of relevance here, that if a word is in a student's spoken vocabulary then he can learn to read it.

In conclusion, it seems clear that any exercise or type of text which facilitates the learning process at hand - in this case, reading for meaning - can be justifiably used as long as the text used and the method employed do lead the student towards the ultimate goal of dealing with authentic texts.

VII. Materials: a review, classification and evaluation

There are, I propose, two basic categories of materials produced specifically for adults with reading problems. I have set out these categories below and have indicated the particular material within each category that has been examined.

Category A : Books and material with a non-fiction, teaching intent

e.g.	"King of the Road"	Joyce Noland
	"Your Move"	B.B.C.
	"Pick and Choose"	BBC and ALSSF
	"Read your Way"	Cliff Moon and Bridie Raban.

Category B : Readers

e.g. "Next Move"	B.B.C.
"Spirals" series	Anita Jackson
"George and the Bus"	Andy Fenner
"The Interview"	Roger Mills
"The Good Old Bad Old Days"	Lil Smith

Each category will be dealt with separately using appropriate criteria for the material concerned. A general point about material evaluation should perhaps be made here; that in the adult literacy situation the psychological factors involved are so delicate and complex that appropriate material is of fundamental importance. It may have taken an immense effort for a student to come forward and ask for help and his fragile motivation must be constantly maintained. This will not be accomplished by inappropriate or patronising material and therefore there is a great need to adopt a rigorously critical approach to the material used. The A.L.R.A. has expressed the extent of this need thus -

> "It has been difficult for those working in the field of adult literacy to obtain, for students, books of a suitable reading level and standard of production and which, at the same time, are acceptable to adults." (1976,No.4.p.7)

Category A : general comments

There are a number of questions that can be asked about material that has a teaching intent and these questions (set out below) form the criteria for evaluating the material concerned.

Possible questions to ask about material

1. Audience : Who is the material for?
   : Is it of the correct level and area of interest for this audience?

2. Linguistic Orangisation : What types of questions and exercises are used?
What is the reading approach adopted and does the material assist ease of reading and understanding?

3. Grading : What level of reading skill does the material require?
Is the material graded in such a way as to improve reading skills towards full comprehension and fluency?

4. Self-study or tutor-assisted? : Is the material suitable for its declared purpose?

5. Illustrations : Are there any illustrations or diagrams and are they used effectively?

1. Audience

Very little of the material reviewed states clearly the kind of audience it is aimed at, apart from the generally stated "suitable for adult illiterates". Perhaps one of the difficulties of accuracy lies in the nature of adult literacy itself, with the fairly wide range of abilities, needs and interests amongst the adults.

"Pick and Choose", produced jointly by the BBC and the Adult Literacy Support Services Fund, has a clearly stated audience - "the students who will use this pack will have reached a stage where they can cope with the material presented in "Your Move" programmes and accompanying book."

Although the material referred to has a very wide range of complexity, the compilers of "Pick and Choose" do at least make an attempt to identify their audience and use topics that will be of interest to most

adults. The reader can, for example, come to grips with "reading a menu", "understanding free offers" and "reading the Electricity meter card".

The "King of the Road" readers by Joyce Nolan also use familiar topics and locations but with a less successful result. The readers, which form part of a kit also containing phonic work cards, word matching cards and sentence completion exercises, are aimed at adult non-readers and hope to evoke the "sympathy of the reader". The readers deal with the adventures of two elderly tramps and place them in situations such as the Hospital, the Cafe and the Big Match. Although such situations are familiar and realistic, the treatment of the themes met a hostile reception in adult literacy classes in Colchester. The students involved were insulted by the implication that the kind of person who cannot read is a tramp living an endless down-and-out life of cafe's and park benches.

2. Linguistic Organisation

An important factor in any reading scheme or text that aims to improve reading is consistency, both of material used and of questions and exercises based on that material. This point will be elaborated in the section on grading of material but two examples given here will serve as illustrations.

In "King of the Road" book 5, social sight words are presented in context, in capitals or lower-case letters as the situation demands and are thus consistent with the 'real' world.

However the same books use a truncated form of sentence construction such as to hinder fluent reading of the text. M-Farlane comments that such a

At the ground,
they stood level with the half-way line,
across from the players' entrance.
A roar went up
as the players came out.
The referee and linesmen
came on to the pitch.
The ref. tossed a coin.
City won the toss.
They would play
towards the Railway end.

Munro passed to Jones,
who pushed the ball to Scott.
'Get it across,' shouted Bill.
Scott crossed the ball.

sentence form is actually harder to read than a continuous, authentic text, a view that was confirmed by the Colchester adult literacy tutors. example of this is as follows:

3. Grading

It is not only important that reading materials are internally consistent but also that the text must progress in a structured and properly graded way in terms of the introduction of new lexical or vocabulary items.

The ABC publication "Your Move" displays two types of grading error, making the handbook difficult for untrained tutors to use. The first example of ill-thought out grading is the juxtaposition of simple and complex exercises within each chapter, without giving enough examples of practice material at each stage. The following extract shows this clearly - "How to fix a fuse" is the last page in Chapter 18, and the page next to is is the initial task in Chapter 19.

Secondly each chapter in "Your Move" moves rapidly from elementary to complex material. The chapter begins well and seems concerned with teaching the letter "k". Both the lower-case and capital varieties of the letter are introduced and each one placed within the context of a word. The following page, however, jumps to the difference between "k" and "c" without any previous work on the letter "c" and its two possible sounds. The next page places "k" and "c" in confusing juxtaposition and it is not clear which letter is being stressed for teaching purposes. Finally, the next pages introduce text and pictures which include information not previously covered just four pages on from the initial letter-tracing activity.

4. Self-study or tutor-assisted?

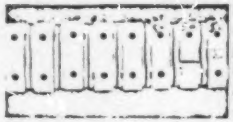
Whether adult literacy reading material is for the student to use on his own, or designed for use by a student and tutor together, its

HOW TO FIX A FUSE

WARNING: Always switch off the power first.

The hardest thing in fixing a fuse is finding the fuse box in the dark when all the lights have gone out. So if you move into a new place find out where the fuse box is, and keep a torch somewhere handy.

If you have square pin plugs, it's often the fuse in the plug that has gone. You have to buy a new one and clip it in. Make sure the new one is the same as the old one – 13 AMPS (13A) or 3 AMPS (3A)



If you have round pin plugs, all the fuses are in the fuse box not the plug. They may be clip-in fuses, in which case you'll need to buy a new one exactly the same. Or they may be the kind that use fuse wire, fixed between 2 copper screws. Check them all till you find the wire that's melted, then undo the screws, and fit a new bit of fuse wire. The new fuse wire must be the same thickness as the fuse wire you've taken out. 15 AMP fuse wire is thickest, 5 AMP is thinner, 2 AMP is thinnest.

WARNING: Always use proper fuse wire, nothing else will do the job.

Z Z Z Z Z

Z Z Z Z Z

Z z Z z Z z

zoo zoo

zone

zips

success must be judged on how far it is true to its intention. In the sensitive area of adult literacy the maintenance of student motivation is very important and a poorly-designed text or set of exercises could prove discouraging to a student struggling to master reading skills. The authors of "Pick and Choose" have gone some way towards designing a materials pack which a more advanced student could tackle on his own, but they also include generally helpful tutor's notes. These notes and suggestions seem to acknowledge the kind of tutor who will be using the pack, an important improvement over other reading material.

The "King of the Road" pack, for example, is meant to be used by a tutor with a student. Yet the pack contains very little information or advice on how the material should be used, none of the work-cards are numbered and none of the supplementary material is labelled to indicate which reader it is linked to.

5. Illustrations

The visual aspect of reading material should not be overlooked as clear and relevant illustrations may serve to successfully complement a text. A.L.R.A. states that -

> " All illustrations should be forceful and clear and should be strategically placed to help with context cueing.... Too much background detail should be avoided as it may distract the learner." (1976, No.4, p.8)

These guidelines are followed in "Your Move" in which visual material is clearly presented and words placed in context.

The relation between reading and visual discrimination is relevant here, for many adults with reading difficulties experience problems with sight

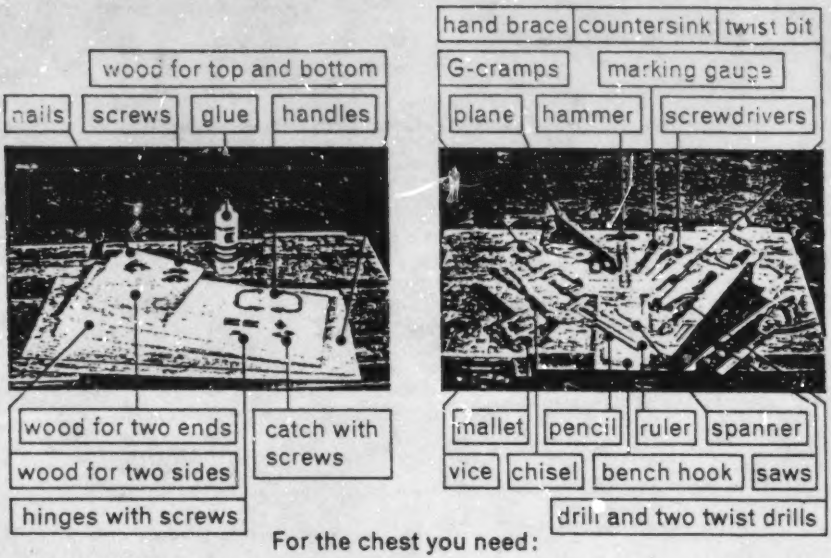
discrimination. A page from one of the "Read your Way" books serves as an example of poor visual presentation that may present problems to even the most fluent reader. One of the many confusing aspects of this page is the difficulty involved in following the lines from the label boxes to the pieces of equipment they refer to. It is not possible to use the photographs here, but the layout is shown schematically.

Category B : general comments

Fictional reading material for use by adult literacy students must, above all, interest those adults. It must be "appropriate" in the sense that it is interesting, does not patronise the reader and looks like an adult novel. Many of the tutors I spoke to in Colchester did not use simplified or adolescent texts because the latter failed to meet the requirements outlined above and they were therefore faced with a dearth of "appropriate" reading matter for their students.

The Centreprise books written specifically for adults with reading difficulties are concerned with real events in the lives of real people and show how effectively the "language experience" approach to reading may be used. These books do have certain weak points, yet overall they provide an interesting and realistic series of stories. An adult literacy student has commented on "George and the Bus" as follows -

> "I thought the story was well-written and well-spaced out. I sometimes feel like George and would like to get away from work for a day. I think it was a well thought up story." (1976. No.8. p.7)



For the chest you need:

2 pieces of plywood for the sides
670mm × 500mm × 12mm
(26½ins × 9¾ins × ¼in)

2 pieces of plywood for the ends
320mm × 500mm × 12mm
(12½ins × 9¾ins × ¼in)

2 pieces of plywood for the top and bottom
670mm × 330mm × 6mm (26½ins × 13ins × ¼in)

no. 8 screws
16 × 25mm (1in)

nails 25mm (1in)

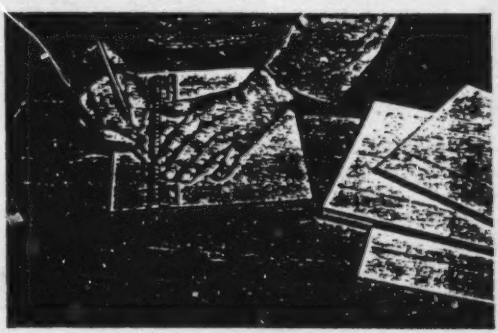
1 pair of hinges with screws

1 catch with screws

1 pair of handles

glue

Draw lines on the end and side pieces for the lid.



Nevertheless "George and the Bus" again illustrates one of the weaknesses of this and similar readers, namely the use of truncated sentences on the assumption that they are simpler and easier to read. Such a text is in fact rather difficult to read fluently and furthermore, the short-line format seems to make the snatches of dialogue appear rather stilted.

A series of books that deals much more successfully with simplified text is the "Spirals" set of readers. T.. adult literacy tutors in Essex praised these books, and Jean Bell (1976) of the Library Association has described them as -

> "One of the few series that adults can carry around in public without feeling ashamed" (p.40)

The following extract shows a page from one of this series "The Actor".

Jean Bell's comment is interesting in relation to the BBC collection of short stores, "Next Move". Most of the stories in this collection, written by well-known entertainment personalities, are humourous and lively and have quite a wide appeal to adults. Yet the book itself carries a clearly visible adult literacy logo on the cover and could never be mistaken for an authentic collection of short stories.

VIII. Suggestions for improving reading comprehension skills

Although the main purpose of this paper was to review and evaluate various kinds of reading material used in adult literacy work, the importance of improving reading skills has been constantly stressed, and this section will offer some suggestions to facilitate that improvement. I have assumed that the audience for these suggestions need improvement in reading for comprehension rather than basic reading skills. There are a number of ways to test a student's understanding of a text by simple

8

I started to work on my part. I knew most of the words but I kept saying them over and over again. It's easy to forget your words when you are up on the stage. Things go right out of your head. I wanted to know my part so well that I could do it without thinking.

Every night I sat in my bedroom saying my words. The photo of Great Uncle Bill seemed to be looking at me. He had a little smile on his face. He seemed to be glad that I was doing a bit of acting at last.

I thought about Great Uncle Bill's voice. His deep strong voice. That was the kind of voice I needed. I stood in front of the photo and said one of my speeches very loudly. I put a lot of feeling into it. It was good. 'What did you think of that?' I said to the photo. He seemed to give a little nod. It was just as if he was saying, 'Not bad!'

As the first night of the play got nearer, I began to get very jumpy. I was afraid I would make a fool of myself. I had to look like a ghost. I had to sound like a ghost. Maybe I would make a mess of it. Maybe everyone would laugh.

When I said my words in my bedroom I was good. I really let myself go. I really got into the part. But when I was on the stage I couldn't do it half as well. I suppose I was shy.

Everyone seemed to think that I was O.K., but I knew I could do better. I was afraid of the first night. That's what was getting me down. Even when I looked after the lights I was always afraid of the first night.

I kept thinking to myself, 'If the first night goes well, then I can really let myself go on the second night. I'll make them sit up. I'll show them some real acting on the second night.'

That was what I kept telling myself, but it didn't help much. I still had to face the first night. I lay awake at night thinking about it. I hoped that Colin had fixed the lights. I remembered Ben Kent in his white robe, with white make-up on his face. Poor old Ben. I didn't want to look like that.

I planned to make my face look pale but not white. I had a white wig to put over my hair. I wouldn't look bad. If Colin did a good job with the lights, it wouldn't look bad at all.

questions. Yes/no and right/wrong questions, for example, but these will not be featured here. They are important in their own right and provide essential information about the student's particular needs, but this section is concerned with teaching, rather than testing, activities. However, most of the suggestions made here could be used for both purposes and therefore can be doubly useful for the adult literacy tutor.

The wide variety of students being taught in adult literacy schemes has been mentioned, but the comment has also been made that it may be possible to attempt a generalisation of needs above the individual level.

Suggestion 1 : Cloze procedure

This kind of test can be used as a teaching activity and can be applied to any kind of text. The results of the procedure can also be useful for later discussion between the student and his tutor, particularly in relation to contextual clues and how a text is composed of a number of lexical devices.

Suggestion 2 : Connectives

In this exercise students are required to read a passage and then have to fill in the blanks left in a copy of that passage from a list of words given underneath the passage. The blanks left are logical connectives and this exercise should help the student to see how such devices are used to give a text cohesion.

Suggestion 3 : Prediction

For this exercise, using the same newspaper extract, the student is required to read the text and then complete a number of unfinished sentences taken from that text.

Suggestion 4 : Compiling a paragraph

This exercise, again aimed at showing the cohesion of a text, is perhaps the most difficult of those discussed, for the student has to deal with a continuous chunk of text rather than with individual sentences. He must choose the correct sentence ending to match the given beginning.

General comments : In conclusion

There are obviously many ways in which a text can be examined and a number of questions and exercises can be constructed in order to elicit varying kinds of information. For example, multiple-choice type questions with suitable distractors could also be used to aid fluency and understanding in reading.

Suggestions 2, 3 and 4 have been adapted from exercises compiled by Mackay and Mountford in relation to the EFL/ESP situation but seemed to be highly appropriate to the mother-tongue adult literacy context. They serve to show the student how sentences and paragraphs are built up and linked together and therefore can help him to interpret what he reads faster and more accurately. The suggestions offered can be used as a basis for constructing exercises for any text, and in this way may help to cater for the wide range of people needing general or particular help with their reading, above an elementary level. What can be done using the materials at hand is perhaps as important as the production of new material, particularly as a generic book can never be totally appropriate.

REFERENCES

ABT C.C.	Serious Games; New York, Viking Press (1970)
ADULT LITERACY RESOURCE AGENCY	Newsletter (1975-78)
ALLEN J.P.B; and WIDDOWSON H.G.	"Teaching the Communicative Use of English" in MACKAY R. and MOUNTFORD A.(eds.) English for Specific Purposes. Longman (1978)
ALLWRIGHT J. and R.	"An Approach to the Teaching of Medical English" in HOLDEN S. (ed.) English for Specific Purposes. Modern English Publications (1977)
ALLWRIGHT R.	"Language Learning through Communicative Practice" in E.L.T. Documents (76/3)
ARMSTRONG and TAYLOR	Instructional Simulation Systems in Higher Education. Cambridge Institute of Education (1970)
BELL J. (ed.)	New Readers Start Here. Libra Association (1976)
BRANSFORD and JOHNS	"Contextual Pre-requisites for Learning" in JVLVB XI (1972)
BRITISH ASSOCIATION OF SETTLEMENTS	A Right to Read (1974)
BRITISH BROADCASTING CORPORATION	Adult Literacy Handbook (1977)
BRITISH COUNCIL	Report on the British Council Conference on Overseas Students. (23/24 April 1975)
BROWN G.	"Listening Comprehension" from BAAL Seminar on Comprehension in ETIC Occasional Papers The Teaching of Comprehension (1978)
BULLOCK REPORT	A Language for Life. HMSO (1975)
BUCOCK and SCHILD (eds.)	Simulation Games in Learning. Sage (1966)
CANDLIN C. et al	Study Skills in English. Part I. University of Lancaster. (1974)
CANDLIN C.N; LEATHER J.H; BRUTON C.J.	Topics in the Design of a Specialist Course from a Data Base. Edinburgh (1974)
CANDLIN C; KIRKWOOD J.M; MOORE H.N.	"Developing Study Skills in English" in ETIC English for Academic Study (1975)
CHOMSKY N.	Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. M.I.T.Press (1965)

COOK V.J. "Some Ways of Organising Language" in Audio-Visual Language Journal Vol. 16/2 (1978)

CORDER S.P. Introducing Applied Linguistics Penguin (1973)

COULTHARD M. An Introduction to Discourse Analysis Longman. (1977)

COWIE A.P; HEATON J.B. English for Academic Purposes. BAAL/SELMOUS Publication (1977)

CRYSTAL D; DAVY, D. Advanced Conversational Analysis. Longman (1975)

E.L.T. DOCUMENTS "Report of the Conference on the Use of the Language Laboratory for Adult Learners". (75/1)

E.L.T. DOCUMENTS Including articles by R. ALLWRIGHT and M.LONG (76/3)

E.T.I.C. Occasional Paper English for Academic Purposes. 1975

EWER J.R. "Teaching EST - the Specialised Training of Teachers and Programme Organisers" in ETIC (1975)

FRASE L.T. "Boundary Conditions for Mathemagenic Behaviour" in Review of Educational Research Vol. XXXX (1970)

FREEMAN S; McDONOUGH J. "English for Science at the University of Essex" in ELT Documents 75/2 (1975)

GERVER D. "Simultaneous and Consecutive Interpretation and Human Information Processing" in Social Science Research Council Report HR 566/1 (1972)

GERVER D. "The Effects of Noise on the Performance of Simultaneous Interpreters : Accuracy of Performance" in Acta Psychologica 38 pp.159-167 (1974)

GILBERT G, WHITING C. Spiegelgespräche : An English-German Interpreters Course. Longman (1967)

GOLDMAN-EISLER F. "Speech Production and the Predictability of Words in Context" in Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology 10.96 (1958)

GOODMAN K.S. Reading - A Psycho-Linguistic Guessing Game in Journal of the Reading Specialist. Vol. 4 (1967) pp.126-135

GOODMAN K.S. "Psycho-Linguistic Universals in the Reading Process" in PIMSLEUR and QUINN (eds.) Psychology of Second Language Learning (1971)

GOODMAN K.S.and Y.M. "Learning about Psycholinguistic Processes by Analysing Oral Reading" in Harvard Educational Review Vol. 47/3 (1977)

GORMAN T.P. Research and Development in Adult Literacy - Preliminary Observations (unpublished) (1977)

GUIRA; BRANNON; DULL. "Empatny and Second Language Learning" in Language Learning Vol. XXII (1972)

HATCH E. Second Language Acquisition. Newbury House (1968)

HINDMARSH R.Y. "An Overview of English Language Testing Overseas" in A.P.COWIE and J.B.HEATON (eds.) English for Academic Purposes. British Association for Applied Linguistics (1977)

HOLES C.D. "An Investigation into some aspects of the English Language Problems of Two Groups of Overseas Postgraduate Students at Birmingham University". M.A.Dissertation (1972)

HYMES D. "Towards Ethnographies of Communication : The Analysis of Communicative Events" in American Anthropologist Vol. 66. No. 6, Part 2. (1964)

INGRAM E. "Manual for the English Language Battery : Department of Linguistics, University of Edinburgh, Attainment and Diagnostic Testing" in A.DAVIES (ed.) Language Testing Symposium : A Psycholinguistic Approach. O.U.P. (1968)

JAMES C.V. "Estimating Adult Needs" in CILT Reports and Papers II (1974)

JOHANNSSON S. "An Evaluation of the Noise Test : A Method for Testing Overall Second Language Proficiency by Perception Under Masking Noise" in IRAL Vol. XI/2 (May 1973)

JOHNS C.M; LLEWELLYN S. "A Thematic Link in Pre-Sessional Courses" in SELMOUS Collected Papers I (1977)

JOHNS C.M and T.F. "The Current Programme of Materials Development in English for Academic Purposes at the Universities of Birmingham and Aston" in J.C.RICHARDS (ed.) Teaching English for Science and Technology. Seamo Regional English Centre. (1976)

JONES K. and ROE P. "Designing ESP programmes" in ETIC Occasional Papers 1975)

JORDAN R.R. — "Identification of Problems and Needs : A Student Profile" in A.P.COWIE and HEATON J.B. (1977)

KADE O; CARTELLIERI C. — "Some Methodological Aspects of Simultaneous Interpreting" in BABEL Vol. 17 (2) (1971)

LACKSTROM J.et al. — "Technical Rhetorical Principles and Grammatical Choice" in English Teaching Form, Vol. XI, June-Aug. No. 3 (1973)

LITTLEWOOD W.T. — "Role Performance and Language Teaching" in IRAL Vol. XIII (1975)

MACKAY R. — "Identifying the Nature of Learners Needs" in R.MACKAY and A.J.MOUNTFORD (eds.) English for Specific Purposes. Longman (1978)

MACKAY R; MOUNTFORD A.J. — "A Programme for Soil Scientists at the University of Newcastle" in MACKAY and MOUNTFORD (eds.) (1978)

MACKAY R; MOUNTFORD A.J. — "The Teaching of English for Special Purposes : Theory and Practice" in MACKAY and MOUNTFORD (eds.) (1978)

MACKAY R; MOUNTFORD A.J. (eds.) — English for Specific Purposes Longman. (1978)

McDONOUGH J. and S. — "Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Mother Tongue Teaching - Some Parallels" in Educational Review Vol. 30 No.3 1978.

McDONOUGH J. — "Listening to Lectures" Modern English Teacher Vol. 6. No.4. (1978)

McFARLANE T. — Teaching Adults to Read. Adult Literacy Resource Agency (1976)

MINISTERIO DE EDUCATION NACIONAL — Programas de Estudio La Ensenenza Media. Bogota, Colombia.

MORGAN B.A; STRANG I.G. — "A Guide to the Preparation of Special Study Report". National College of Agricultural Engineering (1977)

MORRISON J. — "Designing a Course in Advanced Listening Comprehension" in MACKAY and MOUNTFORD (eds.) (1978)

MORRISON J.W. — "An Investigation of Problems in Listening Comprehension Encountered by Overseas Students in the First Year of Postgraduate Studies in Sciences in the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and the Implications for Teaching." M.Ed. Thesis. (1974)

MORROW K. "Authentic Texts and E.S.P." in HOLDEN (ed.) (1977)

MUNBY J. Read and Think (1968)

MUNBY J.L. Communicative Syllabus Design C.U.P. (1978)

NOSS R.B; RODGERS T. "Does English for Special Purposes Imply a New Kind of Language Syllabus?" in G.WILSON (ed.) Curriculum Development and Syllabus Design for English Teaching. (1976)

PANETH E. "Investigation into Conference Interpreting (with Special Reference to the Training of Interpreters)" Unpublished thesis, London University.

PERREN G.E. For Special Purposes. Times Educational Supplement (25/10/75)

POSTMAN and KEPPEL (eds.) Verbal Learning and Memory Penguin. (1969)

PRICE J. "Study Skills With Special Reference to Seminar Strategies" in S.HOLDEN (ed.) (1977)

QUENAU R. Exercises de Style. Gallimard (1947) available in English translation as Exercises in Style translated by B.WRIGHT. Gaberbocchus Press (1958)

RICHTERICH R. "A Model for the Definition of the Language Needs of Adults" in Council of Europe Systems Development in Adult Language Learning (1973)

RIVERS W.M. "Listening Comprehension" in Modern Language Journal. Vol. 50 (1966)

SELINKER L; TRIMBLE R.M.T. and L. "On Reading English for Science and Technology : Pre-Suppositional Rhetorical Information in the Discourse" in J.C.RICHARDS Teaching English for Science and Technology. (1976)

SHAW A.M. "Foreign Language Syllabus Developments : Some Recent Approaches" in Language Teaching and Linguistic Abstracts, Vol. 10/1 (1977)

SMITH F. Understanding Reading (1971)

SMITH F. Psycholinguistics and Reading (1973)

"Special Purpose Language Learning : A Perspective" in Language Teaching and Linguistic Abstracts, Vol. 10/1 (1977)

STRATTON F. "Putting the Communicative Syllabus in its place" TESOL. Vol. 11/2 (1977)

STREVENS P. "Technical, Technological and Scientific English." IATEFL Conference. (1972)

THORNDYKE. P.W. "The Role of Inference in Discourse Comprehension" in Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour. Vol. 15/4 (1976)

TREISMAN A.M. "The Effects of Redundancy and Familiarity on Translating and Repeating Back a Foreign and a Native Language" in British Journal of Psychology 56/4. pp. 369-379. (1965)

TRIM J. "A Unit/Credit Scheme for Adult Language Learning" in CILT Reports and Papers 11 (1974)

TRIMBLE R.M.T.and L. The Development of EFL Materials for Occupational English" in H.M.L. MOODY and J.MOORES (eds.) English for Special Purposes. An International Seminar.

WALMSLEY J.B. "Feedback and Simulation" in IRAL XIV (1976)

WHITE R.V. "Listening Comprehension and Note taking, Part I" in Modern English Teacher, Vol. 6. No. 1 (1978)

WIDDOWSON H.G; ALLEN J.P.B. Teaching the Communcative Use of English. IRAL 1974.

WIDDOWSON H.G. EST in Theory and Practice in ETIC (1975)

WIDDOWSON H.G. "The Authenticity of Language Data" in J.F.FANSELOW (ed.) On TESOL (1976)

WIDDOWSON H.G. "Gradual Approximation" in a paper given at Georgetown Conference (1976)

WIDDOWSON H.G. Teaching Language as Communication O.U.P. (1978)

WILKINS D.A. Notional Syllabuses. O.U.P. (1976)

YORKEY R.C. Study Skills for Students of English as a Second Language McGraw Hill (1970)